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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. XLI, No. 2. FEBRUARY 1940

The Protection of Professional Titles: II [1]

by

Marie-Thérèse NISOT

General Secretary of the Belgian Confederation of Professional Workers

THE TITLE OF CHARTERED ACCOUNTANT

THE organisation of the accountancy profession differs considerably from country to country. This may be attributed to the absence of any clear definition of the profession, the title of accountant being used by persons who engage in a very wide variety of tasks.

The International Confederation of Professional and Intellectual Workers, after an enquiry into this question, decided that the following should be considered as belonging to the accountancy profession:

(*a*) Book-keeper (*teneur de livres, Buchhalter*);

(*b*) Accountant, in the strict sense (*comptable, Buchführer*); he is a salaried expert responsible for the material accounting operations in an undertaking and also for organising and supervising accounts;

(*c*) Chief accountant (*chef comptable, Hauptbuchführer*); he is at the head of an accounting service;

(*d*) Controller or inspector (*comptable contrôleur ou inspecteur, Revisor*); he is responsible for the periodical inspection of the various accountancy services of an undertaking;

(*e*) Advisory accountant (*comptable-conseil, Buchführungsrat*); he differs from those mentioned above in that he is not a salaried expert on the permanent staff of an undertaking; he may be both an organising accountant (*comptable organisateur, Organisator*) and an auditing accountant (*comptable vérificateur, Prüfer*);

[1] For the first part of this article, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLI No. 1, Jan. 1940, pp. 30-46.

(*f*) Chartered accountant (*expert comptable, Buchsachverständige*); he is a specialised expert on whose ability and professional integrity the fullest reliance can be placed; he is not only capable of undertaking the technical work of organising or auditing accounts, but can also give a personal diagnosis of the situation and general working of an undertaking and assess the correctness or otherwise of any past or future operations; persons belonging to this group are practically always (except in the case of large official bodies which have eminent experts on their staffs, such as certain Ministries of Finance or of Justice) non-salaried experts engaged in a liberal profession on their responsibility and at their own risk; they are engaged and paid by their customers for specified operations and they may be selected either by the customer at his own choice or from restrictive lists to which a system of rotation is sometimes applied;

(f^1) At the top of the scale comes the expert auditor (*commissaire aux comptes*), who specialises in balance sheets; he is not called upon merely to check accounts but also, with the help of the data furnished by the accounts, to draw up a balance sheet which he certifies on his own responsibility as being correct; there is also (f^2) the legal investigator (*expert judiciaire*), who is of the same status but who is employed not by private individuals or firms but by the judicial authorities, who accept his evidence before the courts as an expert opinion.

It must be pointed out at once that the enumeration given above is somewhat theoretical in character, for in practice the distinctions are far from clear. Moreover, the various titles mentioned do not correspond to exactly the same concepts in each country.

The present movement in practically every country to arrive at a clear distinction and a more thorough organisation of the accountancy profession may be attributed in part to the pressure brought to bear by members of that profession and in part to the fact that the legislation concerning the management of undertakings, companies, and other economic organisations, is becoming increasingly strict and detailed. Many members of the profession urge that the various titles and duties should be defined clearly and that protection should be given to the titles that are ultimately recognised. They believe that the drafting of rules governing the exercise of the

profession would be profitable not only for them but also for the public, which would know to whom to apply for any given work and what qualifications each individual member of the profession ought to have.

In most countries, selected bodies with special titles are formed within the profession, and these are generally recognised by the public authorities. Examples of these bodies are the German *Wirtschaftsprüfer*, the *commissaires aux comptes* set up by recent French legislation, the *reviseurs bancaires* in Belgium, the certified accountants in Rumania, and the British chartered accountants. These fall within the scope of groups (*e*), (*f*), (f^1), and (f^2), in the above enumeration, and they are generally known as chartered accountants. Indeed it is for that group that legislation has mainly been passed.

An outline of the regulations in various countries is given below ; it will be seen that in most cases it refers to the title of chartered accountant.

In *Belgium*, the legislation concerning the protection of higher educational diplomas applies to chartered accountants who have a university degree (the protection being only for their general university degree and not for the title of chartered accountant). Mention must also be made of the Act of 9 July 1935 which regulates the situation of bank auditors.

The professional organisations concerned, such as the Belgian Chamber of Accountants, the Federative Union of Chartered Accountants, the Academic Accountancy Society, the Chartered Accountants Company, etc., include among their demands one for protection of the title of chartered accountant and regulation of the profession.

In *Bulgaria* the protection of chartered accountants' titles is regulated by an Act of 17 April 1931 and a Legislative Decree of 21 March 1936. In virtue of that legislation an Institute of Sworn Chartered Accountants was established under the supervision of the Ministry of Finance. Membership of the Institute is open to all persons over the age of 30 years who have completed a course of advanced study in commercial, economic, financial or legal subjects and have had from six to ten years' practical experience of the profession. Candidates must also pass an entrance examination and deposit surety to the amount of 10,000 leva.

In *Canada* the title of chartered accountant is protected by provincial legislation. The use of the title is restricted to persons belonging to the Institute of Chartered Accountants, who must comply with certain conditions laid down by law.

In *France* the profession and general title of chartered accountant are not regulated. Protection was, however, granted to a certain limited professional group by a Decree of 22 May 1927, which made provision for chartered accountants' certificates and diplomas recognised by the State. The certificate can be obtained by experts intending to engage regularly in the work of organising, auditing, assessing, and adjusting, accounts of any kind.

An Order of 18 August 1933 established a register of " certificated chartered accountants ". Only persons whose names are on the register are entitled to use the special title after their names. The lists of those on the register are at the disposal of the public and of Government Departments, but those who are registered do not have a monopoly of the general work of accountancy. A Decree of 8 August 1935 established a group of " expert auditors " *(commissaires aux comptes)*, who are responsible for auditing the accounts of companies handling public savings.

No protection is granted to the title of chartered accountant (*Prüfer*, *Bilanzprüfer*, *Revisor*, etc.) in *Germany*, but since the passing of the Companies Act of 1931 the development of the accountancy profession has been influenced by the trend in favour of stricter regulation of joint stock companies. That Act made the auditing of accounts compulsory and increased the responsibility of company directors. This indirectly made the service of skilled auditors more valuable. Since that time there would seem to be a movement in favour of the constitution of a restrictive body of chartered accountants which might even have a monopoly of certain functions. An Act of 7 July 1936 organised a body of industrial and commercial auditors (*Wirtschaftsprüfer*) having quite extensive powers, including more particularly the supervision of accounts.

In *Great Britain* the law protects the various titles of members of the accountancy profession conferred by professional organisations. These include: " chartered accountant ", granted by the Institute of Chartered Accountants; " incorporated accountant ", granted by the Society of Incorporated Accountants and Auditors; " corporate accountant ", " certified accountant ", and " registered accountant ", granted respectively by the Corporation of Accountants, the London Association of Certified Accountants Limited, and the British Association of Accountants and Auditors Limited.

The methods of recruiting members for these organisations are more or less the same and ensure a careful selection. Generally speaking, candidates are not required to have any external diplomas; they are admitted by examinations organised in several stages, the last generally including severe tests in accountancy, financial, commercial and fiscal legislation, political economy, etc. These organisations exercise strict supervision over the professional conduct of their members. They have elaborated a complete code of professional conduct, the rules of which they enforce. Thus, within a profession which is entirely open, the professional organisations have established a system of selection and professional discipline which is very effective.

In *Hungary* there is a group of sworn chartered accountants; recruiting for the group is regulated, and the title is protected, and these persons tend to play an increasingly important part in the economic and financial life of the country. According to an Order issued by the Ministry of Justice in 1931, the diploma of sworn chartered accountant is granted to persons who successfully pass a special examination before a jury appointed for the purpose. Certain laws reserve for sworn accountants various types of auditing work (audits of certain limited liability companies, audits for the Budapest Chamber of Accounts, and the preparation of expert reports for criminal courts). Large undertakings and the public in general are making more and more use of these sworn chartered accountants, whose qualifications are guaranteed and whose activities are supervised by a disciplinary body set up by law.

The profession of chartered accountant (*ragioniere*) was regulated in *Italy* by an Act of 15 July 1906 and a Decree of 28 March 1939. The Act provides that no-one may exercise the profession unless he is on the register of a college of chartered accountants. Conditions for inclusion in the register are the possession of a diploma and not less than two years' practical experience after obtaining the diploma. The Fascist National Union of Accountants and Chartered Accountants is responsible for preventing the wrongful exercise of the profession and reporting any wrongful use of the title of chartered accountant.

In *Latvia* the Act of 1938 concerning sworn experts provides that the title of sworn chartered accountant may be used only by persons satisfying the conditions laid down in the regulations issued under the Act. The title is conferred by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Latvia.

In *Norway* the Act of 22 February 1929, as amended on 5 June 1936, stipulates that the title "certified auditor" may be used only by persons permitted by the State to do so.

There are in *Poland* two categories of chartered accountants whose activities are regulated to a certain extent; they are the chartered accountants attached to the district courts and the sworn chartered accountants of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry. There are no rules governing the recruiting of accountants for the courts, and the fullest liberty is granted to the presidents of district courts in selecting accountants. The position of the chartered accountants of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry is governed by a Decree of 15 July 1927. Various Bills have been prepared by Government Departments and by professional organisations to regulate the various branches of the accountancy profession, but they have not been passed.

In *Rumania* the profession of chartered accountant is regulated by law. A closed body of accountants and chartered accountants was set up and was granted not only a guarantee of protection for accountants' titles but also a monopoly of all important and

official work. This body of certified and chartered accountants was instituted as a body corporate by an Act of 15 July 1921. The accountants of small undertakings and book-keepers are not required to belong to this body. Membership is restricted to those holding a diploma of a Rumanian or foreign commercial college or some equivalent school. Members are protected against wrongful use of their title. Section 18 of the Act provides that any person who, in the exercise of his duties, uses the title "certified accountant" or "chartered accountant" without being a registered member shall be liable to a fine of from 500 to 5,000 lei or to imprisonment of from 15 days to six months.

In *Switzerland* the title of chartered accountant is not protected, and the exercise of the profession is not regulated. There are, however, certain titles which are officially recognised and protected against wrongful use: those of "certified chartered accountant", "certified trustee", "certified commercial adviser and expert", "certified auditor", and "certified commercial organiser". Only persons who have passed the necessary examination may use these titles; a professional register is kept.

In the *United States*, regulations governing the profession and title of accountant exist in twelve States, certain conditions being laid down for the exercise of the profession. In the other States and in the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii, the general designation of accountant or chartered accountant can be used freely and anyone may publicly exercise the profession. There is, however, throughout the country, and even in the States in which the profession as a whole is open, a body of recognised accountants holding a special diploma which is granted to persons having a certain experience and having passed examinations prescribed by statute. The nature of these examinations varies from State to State. The title of "certified public accountant" may be used only by persons who comply with the statutory conditions.

The Title of Veterinary Surgeon

At the present time the title of veterinary surgeon is one of those which are most widely protected. In practically every country, appreciable progress has been made in recent years, and young persons entering this profession are now required to have a thorough professional training. As the qualifications required for the exercise of the profession became increasingly high, it was essential to provide effective regulation. It was also found necessary to put an end to the competition of quacks and ignorant healers, often using rough rule-of-thumb methods. Another reason which made regulation of the profession necessary was the need for preventing the sale of drugs by quacks who recommended their employment for sick animals.

Sometimes these persons used the title " veterinary surgeon " on their plates, in advertisements, etc. In some cases they were even to be found exercising public functions which should be reserved for veterinary surgeons approved by the authorities.

In most countries, therefore, the regulations deal both with the exercise of the profession and with the right to use the title.

In *Australia* (New South Wales) an Act of 5 December 1923 prescribes that no person may use the title of veterinary surgeon unless he is registered with the Council of Veterinary Surgeons of New South Wales. All the Australian States have legislation providing for the registration of veterinary surgeons, and in the older laws no person may be registered unless he holds a university degree or is a M.R.C.V.S. (Member of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons) or holds a diploma which the Council considers equivalent to a degree.

In *Belgium* the title of " Doctor of Veterinary Medicine " is protected by the Act of 11 September 1933 relating to higher educational degrees. Persons not holding the diploma required for that title are not permitted to engage in veterinary practice of any kind (Acts of 12 March 1818 and 4 April 1890).

In *Brazil*, regulations concerning the veterinary profession and the title are contained in Decree No. 19,398 of 11 November 1930, according to which no one may use the title " veterinary surgeon " unless he holds the appropriate diploma from a veterinary school.

In *Bulgaria*, the protection of the title of veterinary surgeon is briefly dealt with by the Act of 1924 relating to the medical and veterinary service and the regulations of 1937 on the same subject.

In *Canada*, anyone wishing to use the title of veterinary surgeon and exercise the profession must be registered in accordance with the legislation of the various provinces. That legislation prescribes that an Association of Veterinary Surgeons must be established in each province ; this body is responsible for organising examinations for the registration of veterinary surgeons and drawing up rules to govern the profession. Provisions of this kind exist in the Act of 1906 relating to veterinary surgeons in the Province of Alberta, a similar Act in the Province of Manitoba, and the Revised Statutes of the Province of Saskatchewan of 1930.

The legislation of *Chile* prescribes that no person who does not hold a diploma of veterinary medicine issued by the University of Chile may in any circumstances use the title of veterinary surgeon or practise the profession. Any person doing so unlawfully is liable to the penalties prescribed in the public health regulations.

In the former territory of *Czecho-Slovakia* the practice of the veterinary art — by which is meant the prevention and treatment of disease in animals — is regulated by law. The rules concerning the diploma of veterinary surgeon and the course of study, examinations, and probationary period, required for obtaining the diploma, were laid down in the Act of 12 December 1918 (No. 76) providing for the establishment of the veterinary college and by Government Decree No. 114 of 24 April 1936 containing public administrative regulations under the Act. Persons who have not been granted the title " veterinary surgeon " may not use it or practise the profession under any other title.

In *Denmark* the provisions on this subject are contained in the Act of 14 April 1920 relating to contagious diseases of domestic animals and the Act of 28 April 1931 relating to the professions. Under that legislation the titles " veterinary surgeon " and " registered veterinary inspector " are protected.

In *Estonia*, the exercise of the profession and the use of the title of veterinary surgeon are protected by the Act of 1934 relating to the veterinary profession. The only persons permitted to practise are veterinary surgeons holding diplomas of the Veterinary Faculty of the University of Tartu and other persons admitted to membership of the Chamber of Veterinary Surgeons.

In *France* an Act of 23 July 1923 provides that any person wrongfully using the title " veterinary surgeon ", or any person, being a veterinary surgeon without being a doctor of medicine, who does not use the word " veterinary " in his title, shall be liable to the penalties prescribed in Section 259 of the Criminal Code. This means that persons not holding the diploma may not use the title of veterinary surgeon.

The veterinary profession in *Germany* is governed by an Order of 3 April 1936, according to which only persons officially appointed by the Minister of the Interior are entitled to practise the profession and use the title. Wrongful use of the title renders the offender liable to imprisonment for one year, or to a fine, or to the two penalties combined. As was mentioned earlier, protection is also granted for the honorary title of *Veterinärrat*, which is conferred individually by the Führer.

In *Great Britain* the matter is dealt with by an Act of 1881, amended in 1920. According to this legislation, all veterinary surgeons are subject to the jurisdiction of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, and must have followed the course prescribed by the College and successfully passed the examinations. Persons not holding the diploma may not use the title " veterinary surgeon " or any other title or description stating that they are veterinary surgeons or practitioners of veterinary surgery or any of its branches or that they are specially qualified to do so. Persons who have

not the diploma may practise, but they are liable to prosecution if they use any title intended to convey that they are properly qualified.

In *Ireland*, the title of veterinary surgeon and the exercise of the profession are governed by the Veterinary Surgeons Act of 1931. The organisation of the profession is in the hands of a Veterinary Council, which lays down the conditions for entering the profession and keeps a list of veterinary surgeons in which all members of the profession must be registered. Any person using the title or exercising the profession without being lawfully entitled to do so is liable to a fine not exceeding £100.

In *Italy*, candidates for the veterinary profession must study for four years at a university and submit a doctor's thesis. Before being allowed to practise, they must pass a State examination. Persons who do not have the necessary diploma may not use the title "veterinary surgeon" or exercise the profession under any other title.

In *Latvia*, Section 26 of the Veterinary Act of 1938 prescribes that only those who have a diploma in veterinary medicine of the University of Latvia are entitled to exercise the profession or to be called as experts to give evidence before a court of law.

In *Luxemburg*, Section 5 of the Act of 23 May 1927, concerning veterinary degrees, prescribes that no person may use the title "veterinary surgeon" unless he has passed the necessary examinations. Offences against this clause are dealt with under Section 231 of the Criminal Code.

In *Poland* an Act was passed on 11 July 1932 to protect the title "veterinary surgeon", granted by Polish higher educational institutions. Persons not holding the diploma of veterinary surgeon may not use the title or exercise the profession under any other title.

The veterinary profession in *Spain* is considered as a true science rather than as an art. It was organised and regulated by an Act of 4 December 1931 and a Decree of 7 December 1931 containing public administrative regulations.

In *Switzerland*, Section 1 of the Act of 19 December 1877 relating to the exercise of the professions of doctor, dentist, and veterinary surgeon, provides that these professions may be exercised freely throughout the whole of the Confederation by doctors, dentists, and veterinary surgeons, respectively, who have obtained a Swiss degree in accordance with the provisions of the Act. The great majority of the cantons protect the title of veterinary surgeon throughout their territory, but in some of them there are no definite regulations on the subject, the necessity for them not having arisen up to the present because of local conditions. The districts in question

are sparsely populated, and no one not possessing a diploma has so far applied for permission to exercise the profession of veterinary surgeon with the approval of the State.

In the *United States*, the practice of veterinary medicine in the State of New York is defined and regulated by the Education Act of 1909 (chapter 21), as amended by an Act of 1910 (chapter 140). No-one who has not a permit to practise may render any service falling within the scope of the statutory definition of the profession. The legislation prescribes that a special diploma shall be granted to those entitled to exercise the profession. Those not holding the diploma may not use the title or practise as veterinary surgeons. Penalties are prescribed under criminal law for offences against this provision.

In *Yugoslavia*, no-one who does not hold the necessary diploma may use the title of veterinary surgeon or exercise the profession.

Miscellaneous Titles

Other professions have also urged that regulations be adopted which would impose certain conditions of ability and integrity, and guarantee the prestige and proper exercise of the profession.

Journalists

Journalists, for example, have asked for special regulations to guarantee their moral and material rights and, incidentally, protect the interests of the community. Some countries have already passed legislation on this subject.

In *Belgium*, a Bill to establish an Order of Journalists was prepared by the Research Centre for Administrative Reform. According to this text, journalists wishing to be registered would have to satisfy the following conditions : (1) be of Belgian nationality ; (2) have reached the age of 21 years ; (3) have been actively engaged for not less than two years as probationers in the editorial office of one or more general daily newspapers, or of a news agency, and produce a certificate from the manager ; (4) have full civil rights ; (5) give sufficient guarantees of independence and good conduct ; (6) refrain from any commercial activity, unless as manager of a newspaper ; (7) be attached to the editorial staff of one or more general daily newspapers or of a news agency, and habitually exercise the profession of journalism ; (8) have taken a prescribed oath.

Only members of the proposed Order or probationers would have the right to style themselves " journalist ". The Bill proposes that any person publicly using the title of " journalist " or " honorary journalist " without fulfilling the conditions laid down should be liable to imprisonment of from one week to three months, or a

fine of from 200 to 1,000 francs, or to the two penalties simultaneously.

In *France*, Section 29*b* of the Act of 29 March 1935, as amended by Section 5 of the Decree of 8 May 1935, defines the professional journalist as follows:

> A professional journalist is one whose main regular or remunerated occupation is the exercise of his profession in a daily newspaper or other periodical published in France, or in a French news agency, and who earns his livelihood mainly from this source.
>
> A correspondent, whether working in France or abroad, is a professional journalist if he receives a fixed salary and fulfils the conditions of the previous paragraph.
>
> Those who take a direct part in the editing of a periodical shall be regarded as professional journalists. These include translators, stenographers, and revisers, who also draft work for publication, newspaper artists, and press photographers, but not advertising agents or any persons who collaborate only occasionally.

Section 29*j* of the same Act provides that only the persons enumerated in Section 29*b* who hold a professional identity card may call themselves journalists for the purpose of obtaining a passport or for any other administrative purpose, or in order to take advantage of the privileges granted to the press by the authorities. The holder of a professional identity card thus enjoys certain privileges in dealing with the authorities as compared with those who do not. The title of journalist is thus not expressly protected, but as only recognised professional journalists can enjoy the advantages in question it is practically impossible for anyone who is not a professional journalist to exercise the profession.

In *Germany*, an Act of 4 October 1933 grants protection to the professional title of editor (*Schriftleiter*). The title may not be used except by persons who satisfy the statutory conditions and obtain the right to exercise the profession by being registered in the professional register. Any offence against the Act renders the offender liable to a fine of 150 marks, or to imprisonment.

In *Great Britain* a Bill for the protection of the title of journalist has been submitted to Parliament. It is similar in its general lines to the legislation concerning the registration of architects.

A recent Act in *Greece* prescribes that all persons on the editorial staffs of newspapers must be registered as journalists by the Ministry of the Press. Reporters, members of the editorial staff, salaried employees, and all workers engaged in the service of the press, must be organised in the appropriate associations.

In *Hungary*, Section 56 of Order No. 6070 of the Council of Ministers, of 1938, provides for the establishment of a Chamber of the Press. Every journalist, member of an editorial staff, or contributor to a newspaper, must be registered in the appropriate category with the Chamber of the Press before being allowed to use the title. Membership of the Chamber is regulated by Sections 42 and 43 of the Order.

Artists

Artists have also claimed legal protection for their titles.

In this connection mention may be made of the *Estonian* Act of 13 November 1935, which was one of the first on this subject, and which regulates and protects the title " professional artist ". The Act applies to : (1) artists in the plastic arts (painting, sculpture, and graphic and applied arts) ; (2) musicians ; (3) choreographic artists ; and (4) theatrical and film artists.

The legally recognised professional title corresponding to their particular field of activity can be obtained by the following : (*a*) those who have completed the courses of professional artistic study prescribed by the Act ; (*b*) those who have in some other way obtained the necessary artistic and professional training and have for not less than five years worked as recognised teachers in one or more advanced schools of art or have worked in studios, on the stage, or on the screen ; (*c*) those who for not less than five years have publicly exhibited their artistic creations and works, or have worked at their special branch in an undertaking or industrial establishment ; provided always that the above-mentioned theoretical or practical training or professional activity has been recognised by the competent department of the Ministry of Education.

Artists who satisfy the above conditions must also be registered as " professional artists " with the same department of the Ministry of Education. Only artists who possess this legal title have the right to affix to their doors a professional plate or badge of the type mentioned in the Act and to lay public claim to membership of an artistic profession. Persons who are not registered as " professional artists " may not work under that title or enjoy any of the rights or privileges specified in the Act.

In *Canada*, the Province of Saskatchewan has an Act of 23 March 1938 which is much more restricted in scope, referring only to music teachers. It prescribes that no one may use the title " registered music teacher " without being a member of the Saskatchewan Registered Music Teachers' Association and complying with certain conditions laid down in the regulations.

In *Hungary*, Section 60 of Order No. 6090 of 1938 provides that the title " theatrical artist " or " cinema artist " may be used only by persons registered with the Chamber of Theatrical and Cinema Artists set up under Act No. XV of 1938. That Act made registration compulsory for all theatrical and film artists.

In other countries the professional organisations are taking active steps to obtain legal recognition for titles such as " licensed artist " or " professional artist " or some other designation intended to distinguish the professional from the amateur.

In *Belgium*, the Association of Professional Artists at successive congresses adopted a number of resolutions of this type. It also prepared draft legislation containing the following provisions:

(1) An Order of Licensed Artists shall be set up in Belgium. It shall include all licensed creative artists belonging to one or more of the following professions: painter, sculptor, engraver, composer, architect, creator of applied art, or writer.

(2) Artists' licences shall be issued by professional associations working under the supervision of the Government and having as members only licensed artists, irrespective of their aesthetic trends. The licence shall be confirmed by the Department of Fine Arts and Letters of the Ministry of Education.

(3) The right to use the title "licensed artist" and to exercise the profession for gain shall be restricted to those who, having complied with the conditions laid down in the regulations to give effect to this Act, have been admitted and registered by the Order of Licensed Artists.

The initial membership of the Order shall include:

(*a*) All persons of 26 years or over who at the date of promulgation of the Act have for not less than five years continuously engaged in the artistic profession of painter, sculptor, engraver, architect, or creator of applied art; applicants shall be obliged to prove that these professions were not exercised as subsidiary professions during the prescribed period;

(*b*) All persons over 26 years of age who at the date of promulgation of the Act have for not less than five years engaged in the profession of composer or writer and whose works have been published or publicly performed to a sufficient extent to constitute clear proof of creative activity;

(*c*) All members of the Belgian Association of Professional Artists at the date of promulgation of the Act.

It should be noted that the regulations or draft regulations concerning legal recognition for the artistic professions are always careful not to adopt as a criterion for admission to the profession membership of any school of art or the artistic conceptions or even the artistic worth of the applicants. What is required is essentially that they should have completed a certain course of study and given evidence of professional activity in the profession concerned. In the Belgian draft, recognition would be granted by a system of professional licences issued by recognised professional associations. This system, which gives the associations power to admit members to the profession, is more elastic than the Estonian Act, which restricts that right to the State.

In *France*, the Confederation of Professional Workers has also considered this problem and advocated the adoption of a professional identity card. This card would not be considered as a proof of artistic ability but as a certificate of membership of the profession and a proof that the holder earned his livelihood wholly or mainly by the practice of his art.

The privileges that would be granted to holders of the professional licence are of various kinds. Only those possessing such a

licence would receive official commissions, be appointed to posts in art schools, be called upon to identify works of art, take part in competitions for the decoration of public buildings, etc. Moreover, only the recognised professional associations would be represented on committees for artistic education in conjunction with the official bodies and would thus have the right to decide on the subsidies to be paid to artists, the travelling scholarships to be granted, the purchase of works of art for museums and municipalities, the supervision of artistic publications, etc.

Other Professions

Regulations for the protection of titles have gone still further in some cases.

In *Germany*, Orders have been issued by the President of the Federal Chamber of Education regulating the use of the title of bookseller.

In *Denmark*, provisions exist for the protection of the titles of translator, average adjuster, broker, property transfer agent, recognised Government inspector, recognised surveyor, etc. (Act of 28 April 1931 relating to the professions). According to the Act, any person who is duly trained for the exercise of one of these professions is entitled to use the corresponding title; the use for advertising purposes of any designation liable to cause misunderstanding is prohibited.

In *Hungary*, protection is granted to the titles of certified farmer, gardener, and farm manager.

In *Canada*, an Act of the Province of Manitoba of 12 March 1930 protects the title "land surveyor", and similar regulations exist in Saskatchewan. In the latter Province the Embalmers Act of 1930 regulates the embalming profession and protects the title. For the purposes of this Act an embalmer is taken to mean any person who preserves corpses from corruption by the use of chemical processes. No one may use the title unless registered in a special register kept by the Board of Examiners in Embalmment. A fine of $50 is imposed for any infringement of the legislation. There is also protective legislation in various provinces of Canada for all the subsidiary branches of the medical profession and for the corresponding titles. This covers the professions of nurse[1], dentist[2], oculist[3], pharmacist[4], and drugless practitioner.[5]

In the *United States*, in the State of New York, the Education Act of 1909 (Chapter 21), as amended by the Act of 1910 (Chapter 140),

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[1] Cf. the Registered Nurses Act in the Province of Saskatchewan.

[2] Cf. the Dental Association Act in the Province of Manitoba and the Dental Profession Act of 1928 in the Province of Saskatchewan.

[3] Cf. the Optometry Acts in the Provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

[4] Cf. the Pharmaceutical Acts in the Provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

[5] Cf. the Drugless Practitioners Act of 1929 in the Province of Saskatchewan.

contains a number of provisions concerning the various protected titles and the conditions for acquiring them. Mention may be made of the titles of dentist (Sections 1300-1314), pharmacist (Sections 1350-1365), chiropodist (Sections 1400-1416), oculist (Sections 1425-1436), surveyor (Sections 1449-1462), and stenographer (Sections 1500-1505). Similar regulations exist in other States.

It may be asked where this movement for increasingly strict regulation of the exercise of professions is going to stop. It may not be without significance that French market gardeners recently demanded the introduction of a professional card to help them to combat the unfair competition of amateur gardeners who grow vegetables and flowers in their spare time and sell any surplus beyond their own requirements (report of Mr. M. Dablincourt to the general meeting of the French Confederation of Professional Workers in 1939, *Le Cétéiste*, March 1939).

The International Movement

The International Labour Organisation, which closely follows social trends throughout the world, has for many years been considering the problem of the protection of titles. Mention may be made of studies published by the International Labour Office on the situation of engineers and chemists [1] and the status of professional workers in the chemical industry [2], and reports prepared by it on the basis of enquiries into the protection of titles and professional organisation of (1) engineers and architects, (2) architects, (3) chartered accountants, and (4) veterinary surgeons.

The Advisory Committee on Professional Workers of the International Labour Organisation has also on several occasions had to consider these problems and has adopted a number of resolutions on the subject, some of which may be mentioned.

At a session in November 1933 the Committee adopted the following resolution concerning engineers' titles:

This Committee desires to suggest to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office the desirability of taking appropriate

[1] International Labour Office: *Engineers and Chemists: Status and Employment in Industry*, Studies and Reports, Series L (Professional Workers), No. 1 (Geneva, 1924).

[2] "The Status of Professional Workers in the Chemical Industry" by Marie-Thérèse Nisot, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, Oct. 1932, p. 513.

steps toward securing an international agreement by which the different States shall undertake to regulate by legislation the use of engineering degrees and titles granted by universities and technical colleges, the use of such degrees and titles to be forbidden except under conditions authorised by law and established practice.

At a session in October 1935 the Committee adopted the following resolution concerning architects' titles :

The Advisory Committee on Professional Workers invites the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to consider the possibility of taking the necessary measures to bring about an international agreement under which the different States shall undertake to regulate by law the conditions under which the status of architect may be acquired and exercised. In the absence of the conditions laid down the claim to this status should be prohibited and the exercise of the profession should be confined to persons having complied with the conditions.

At a session in May 1937 it adopted the following resolution concerning the titles of chartered accountants :

Whereas the great majority of the members of the accountancy professions, in order that recruiting for their professions be kept at a satisfactory level and that a sufficient standard of life be kept up, desire that their conditions of work be examined and that they be provided with rules ;

Whereas it is in the interest of the community that professions which have achieved so much importance in the modern economic system be provided with such rules and that the functions and titles of persons exercising these professions be thus defined and protected ;

And whereas this work of definition and protection has begun in several countries and has given satisfactory results both for the members of the accountancy professions and for the public in general ;

The Advisory Committee on Professional Workers recommends that in each country the functions and titles of persons exercising the various accountancy professions be defined and classified. This work of definition and classification should permit regulation of the conditions under which titles relative to the qualified accountancy profession are acquired and used, the use of such titles to be prohibited unless the conditions prescribed are fulfilled, and the exercise of the profession to be reserved to persons who have fulfilled these conditions.

The Committee therefore requests the Governing Body to instruct the International Labour Office to continue its study of the question with a view to an international agreement.

The International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, in response to requests made by professional organisations and groups of students, has endeavoured to establish a table of the equivalent values of university studies in different countries. It was felt that this was an indispensable basis for any regulations for the international protection of higher educational degrees.

The International Confederation of Professional and Intellectual Workers has placed the question of the protection of titles in the forefront of its demands. A number of enquiries were carried out in various countries, not only into the protection of university titles in general but also into the protection of the titles of engineer, architect, chartered accountant, and licensed artist. As a result of these enquiries resolutions were adopted advocating very strict regulation of titles. It is as a result of the activities of this important organisation of professional workers that the question has become so widely considered in the international field. It was at its request that the International Labour Organisation undertook the various activities mentioned above, which will doubtless in the more or less distant future lead to international agreements on this subject.

Other attempts at securing international regulations have been made by associations of professional workers for their own particular professions.

For example, the European Federation of Engineers' Associations, established in Rome in 1934 at the suggestion of the Fascist National Union of Italian Engineers, undertook as one of its tasks the preparation of a table showing the equivalent values of the various courses of study for the engineering profession in different countries. A draft text prepared by the Federation suggested that the affiliated engineers should be grouped in three categories : (1) engineers with a university training who had completed a course of not less than five years of advanced study, who could use the title " Doctor of Engineering " ; (2) engineers with a semi-university training involving four years of advanced study, who could use the title " Certificated Engineer " ; and (3) engineers with a technical training involving three years' study, who could use the title " Technical Engineer ".

The efforts of the Federation produced no tangible results because certain of the affiliated groups insisted that a course

of university study was the minimum condition for admission to membership of the Federation.

The International Congresses on Technical Education also dealt with this question at Barcelona in 1933, at Rome in 1936, and at Paris in 1937. One of the questions discussed was the training of engineers and the extent to which advanced technical training should be given in universities.

In conclusion, mention may be made of the attempts of journalists and artists to secure the adoption of international regulations for their professions.

The International Federation of Journalists is carefully considering the possibility of extending the system of journalists' cards as an international measure.

The International Confederation of Artists' Associations claims legal recognition for the artistic professions. The following resolution was unanimously adopted by the International Congress of Artists' Associations at Brussels in 1935 :

Whereas artistic creation, when considered as a main occupation, is a profession in itself, calling for preliminary study or at least certain special knowledge ;

Whereas the status of professional creative artists, including painters, sculptors, engravers, designers, composers, writers, architects, and creators of applied art, is not governed by any special regulations and consequently persons possessing neither the requisite knowledge nor the requisite professional integrity wrongfully engage in those professions ;

Whereas most of these unqualified persons exercise these professions merely as amateurs, that is as a subsidiary occupation, although at the same time obtaining material profit by exhibiting, selling, and publishing, their work and by accepting and carrying out orders to the detriment of professional artists, although their principal or nominal profession brings them in a regular income, sometimes of considerable amount ;

Whereas the present economic situation compels the authorities everywhere to take steps to reduce unemployment and enable producers of all categories to earn a livelihood from their work ;

Whereas the exercise of artistic professions for purposes of gain by an unduly large number of amateurs depreciates works of art, not only from the point of view of their material value but also and especially from the point of view of their intrinsic and essentially cultural value and tends to lower, in the eyes of a public ignorant of the facts, the prestige of true artists whose efforts and sacrifices are increasingly little recognised ;

Whereas, however, the fact of engaging as an amateur in an artistic profession does not necessarily mean a lack of talent, and whereas talent should be recognised and encouraged in all circums-

tances, and rules, no matter how strict, must make allowance for the desire of particularly gifted amateurs to improve their artistic skill and be able to practise as professionals ;

Whereas, moreover, it is necessary to guarantee freedom of thought and execution in all branches of art and to defend that freedom, which must be expressly recognised ;

The International Congress of Artists' Associations decides :

(1) To claim legal recognition for the artistic professions ;

(2) To instruct a legal committee to draft a legal code for the artistic professions which would exclude from the free exercise of these professions all persons who cannot or do not submit proof that the artistic profession which they claim to exercise is a main and not a subsidiary profession, and all those who cannot or do not offer proof that they have the knowledge which is indispensable for the exercise of such a profession ;

(3) To appoint an international committee to supply information to all associations of professional artists concerning the steps to be taken and the results obtained.

The Organisation of Employment in Japan

by

Toru OGISHIMA

International Labour Office

The measures taken for the mobilisation of national resources in Japan in recent years, as a consequence of the war in China, were described in a recent issue of the Review.[1] *The immediate result of this mobilisation was the dislocation of the employment market and a rise in unemployment. But as the demand for war materials of all kinds increased there was a shortage of labour, especially in the skilled trades, and it became necessary to find fresh sources of labour supply, to make special arrangements for vocational training and retraining, and to ensure a proper distribution of workers among the various undertakings. The following article gives a brief survey of the measures adopted to meet this situation. In justification of these measures it has been urged that together they constitute a comprehensive scheme calculated to facilitate a transformation in the industrial structure of the country which judging from recent trends had become indispensable.*

RECENT CHANGES IN INDUSTRY

THE measures recently adopted in Japan, under the provisions of the General Mobilisation Act of 1 April 1938, for the organisation of the employment market in accordance with wartime requirements have had the effect of hastening the transformation of the industrial structure of the country, a process which had already begun before the Act came into effect and which doubtless influenced it. During the period 1930-1937, the largest increase, according to the index numbers of the volume of production published by the Department

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XL, No. 6, Dec. 1939, pp. 822-836 : "Economic Control in Japan".

of Commerce and Industry, was in the iron and steel and chemical groups, while textile goods, with the exception of rayon tissues, showed a decrease or only a moderate increase, with the miscellaneous group generally following a similar curve. This trend is confirmed by a report of the Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau of Tokyo, according to which, during the six years from 1930 to 1936, producers' goods increased by 72.4 per cent. as compared with a rise of 47.8 per cent. in consumers' goods.

The change was reflected in the distribution and composition of the labour force. The total number of workers covered by the factory statistics rose from 2,095,240 in 1929 to 2,592,687 in 1936, an increase of 497,447, or 23.7 per cent. The number employed in the iron and steel and mechanical engineering industries rose from 371,723 to 703,821, an increase of 89.3 per cent., and the number of chemical workers from 126,520 to 273,487, an increase of 116.2 per cent.; on the other hand, there was an increase of only 29,222, or 2.9 per cent., in the number of workers in the textile industry.

The relative decline of the textile industry, in which women workers predominate, and the sharp rise in the iron and steel and mechanical engineering industries, in which the workers are mostly men, have sensibly affected the composition of the labour force. The number of male workers rose from 960,342 in 1929 to 1,458,398 in 1936, an increase of 498,056, or 51.9 per cent., while the number of female workers fell from 1,134,898 to 1,134,289. In 1929, 45.8 per cent. of the total number of workers were males and 54.2 per cent. females, but in 1936 the percentage of males was 56.2 and that of females 43.8. Of the net increase of 498,056 males, 59 per cent. were absorbed by the iron and steel and mechanical engineering industries, 19 per cent. by the chemical industry, 18 per cent. by the miscellaneous group, and only 4 per cent. by the textile industry.

Female workers, during the same period, showed increases of 37,054 and 52,334 in the iron and steel and mechanical engineering industries and the chemical industry respectively. These increases, however, were more than counterbalanced by a decrease in the miscellaneous industries. As regards the percentage distribution of workers in the male group, there was a marked increase in the iron and steel, mechanical engineering and chemical industries, and a noticeable decline

in the textile and miscellaneous industries. In the female group there was an increase in the iron and steel, mechanical engineering and chemical industries, a substantial decrease in the miscellaneous group, and a slight increase in the textile industry. [1]

The tendencies noted above were further accentuated in 1937. The total number of persons employed in factories increased by 343,825, but the rate of increase in the textile industry was only 1.3 per cent., while in the heavy industries and the chemical industry it was 75 per cent. The percentage of female workers fell to 41.2. As the military operations in China gradually developed from a local incident to a major undertaking with the declared intention of establishing a new order in East Asia, increasing demands were made on industry for the necessary supplies for the war and for the development of Manchuria and occupied areas in China, while at the same time a large number of men who would normally have been employed in various branches of industrial activity were mobilised. Consequently, it became necessary to transfer labour from one industry to another in certain cases, to find new supplies of workers to replace those drafted into the army, and to secure an adequate supply of skilled workers.

The General Mobilisation Act

Underlying the General Mobilisation Act of 1 April 1938 [2] is a recognition of the need, in modern warfare, of a mobilisation of the entire resources of the country, human as well as material, in order to ensure an adequate supply of munitions, facilitate swift changes in strategy, and satisfy the normal requirements of national life. The Act therefore confers wide powers on the Government for the control of the " human and material resources of the State ", and such control may, in specified cases, be exercised as a precautionary measure even in peace-time. The Act, which consists of 50 sections, deals with the control of capital, equipment, economic activities, prices, the press and information, registration of vocational qualifications, compulsory technical and vocational training,

[1] A more detailed account of these changes will be found in " Industrial Transformation in Japan, 1929-1936 ", by Yoshio Kamii, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XL, No. 4, Oct. 1939, pp. 516-533.

[2] This Act came into effect on 5 May 1938 ; for the text of the Act and the Order fixing the date for its enforcement, see *Kampo* (Official Gazette), 1 April and 4 May 1938.

compulsory stocking of specified materials, scientific research, and the obligations of private citizens in relation to the plan for general mobilisation. Provision is also made for the payment of compensation and subsidies, and for penalties in case of infringement, but, being essentially an enabling measure, the Act leaves the enforcement of the policy laid down in it to the Government, which is empowered to issue detailed regulations in the form of Orders. All such regulations must, however, first be submitted for consideration to a Committee composed of representatives of the Government and acknowledged experts in the subjects concerned, under the direct control of the Prime Minister.[1]

Regulations for the organisation and control of the employment market, issued in accordance with this policy, are analysed below under different heads. It may be noted here that, under the provisions of the Act which relate to labour questions, the following wartime action by the Government is authorised, within the limits of the Orders concerned and if the need arises: (1) to require any Japanese subject to engage in work designed to give effect to the scheme of general mobilisation (Section 4); (2) to take all necessary measures in respect of the engagement, employment (wages and conditions of work), and dismissal, of workers (Section 6); (3) to take measures for the prevention or settlement of labour disputes, including the closing down of workplaces or suspension of work therein (Section 7); (4) to require Japanese workers to give particulars of their vocational qualifications, or their employers to supply such information, and to investigate these qualifications (Section 21); and (5) to require schools, institutes, factories, and other institutions with the requisite equipment, to provide technical and vocational training in order to ensure the necessary supply of skilled labour (Section 22).

Measures against Unemployment

The General Mobilisation Act thus conferred the necessary powers on the Government to enable it, by organising vocational training and introducing compulsory labour service,

[1] The Committee was set up by an Imperial Order of 3 May 1938, in accordance with Section 50 of the General Mobilisation Act. The Order came into force on 5 May 1938 (*Kampo*, 4 May 1938).

to secure the necessary labour supply to give effect to its industrial programme. While plans were being prepared to overcome the shortage of labour in the war industries by making use of these powers, however, there was a considerable increase in unemployment as a result of the application of the provisions of the Act concerning the mobilisation of " material resources ". The Council of Ministers had adopted a plan for the mobilisation of " material resources " as early as 16 January 1938, but it was amended on 23 June of the same year. A revised plan was drawn up for the year 1939-1940, covering over 200 commodities, the utilisation of which for the normal production of manufactured goods was severely restricted, because the available supplies were needed for the munitions industries or other industries providing materials required for the normal daily life of the nation and for the economic reconstruction of Manchuria or of occupied areas of China. [1] An immediate effect of this restriction was industrial dislocation and an increase in unemployment. [2] This situation was examined by the Employment Division of the Department of Welfare, in consultation with the Ministries of Finance and of Industry and Commerce, and the first step taken to deal with it was the issue of an Imperial Order on 15 July 1938 [3] providing for the establishment of a Central Unemployment Commission and various Local Unemployment Commissions for examining specific questions referred to them.

A report was submitted by the Government to the Central Unemployment Commission at its inaugural meeting on 3 August 1938, stating that 400,000 factory workers had already

[1] These commodities included iron, metal products other than ironmongery, light metals, fuel chemical products, machinery, raw materials employed in the manufacture of clothing, foodstuffs, fodder, various imported articles, etc. (cf. statement of the Government Planning Board, published in *Shuho*, 7 June 1939).

[2] The Government Planning Board's estimate in June 1938 of the probable extent of unemployment resulting from this restriction was four million persons —800,000 industrial workers, excluding persons engaged as motor drivers, etc., and 500,000 families engaged in retail trade (*Shakai Seisaku Jiho*, Aug. 1938).

[3] This Order came into force on the date of its promulgation (*Kampo*, 16 July 1938). The Central Commission was to be under the control of the Minister of Welfare, who would be its chairman, and it was to consist of not more than 40 members appointed by the Cabinet on his recommendation. He was also to specify the prefectures in which the Local Commissions were to be set up, and these Commissions, which were to be under the control of the respective prefectural governors, who would act as their chairmen and appoint the members, were to consist of not more than 30 members. In addition to the regular members on the Central and Local Commissions, temporary members might be appointed, and the normal term of office of all the members was fixed at two years.

been affected by the enforcement of the emergency measures, and containing proposals for preventing and relieving unemployment with the aid of Government grants. These proposals, which were adopted by the Commission, included the reorganisation and transformation of depressed industries [1], in consultation with industrial guilds [2], so as to enable them to meet current requirements; avoidance of retrenchment on a large scale by shortening hours of work and lengthening holidays, and, when retrenchment was unavoidable, regulation of the termination of the employment of workers so that there might be no sudden increase in unemployment; establishment of close co-operation between employers and employment exchanges, advance information as to proposed retrenchment schemes being supplied to the exchanges so as to enable them to place the workers affected; regulation of conditions of employment in the munitions and other prosperous industries, with a view to making full use of their capacity for employment; provision of facilities for workers who had to proceed to places far removed from their homes in order to secure employment, such as the payment of travelling expenses and assistance in securing accommodation; provision of facilities for vocational training and retraining by employment exchanges, public institutions, and private undertakings; provision of special facilities by the public authorities and private undertakings for the employment of older workers and those for whom retraining was not likely to be effective; the giving out of work connected with the munitions and other industries to the unemployed and their reintegration in industries unaffected by the emergency restrictions, such as engineering and forestry and in public undertakings generally; settlement of the unemployed on the land; encouragement of emigration to Manchuria and to South American

[1] The measures suggested for assisting such industries were the granting of preference to them in placing orders for supplies of materials for Government offices and army and navy workshops, etc.; the institution of special research for the discovery of suitable substitutes for raw materials which had ordinarily been employed by them but which were subject to restriction; the ensuring of a regular supply to them of such substitutes and of the necessary equipment (machines and tools) as well as of capital; an increase in exports of their products; and the provision of facilities for securing the necessary technical advice as regards management and organisation of purchases and sales.

[2] Of the 821 guilds affected by the measures concerning the mobilisation of material resources, 732 took up work connected with the production of munitions and 78 were transformed into exporters' guilds (*Toyo Keizai Shimpo*, 25 Feb. 1939).

countries; and establishment of organisations for increasing medical and other assistance to the unemployed. [1]

In order to co-ordinate these measures, two new Divisions, one in the Department of Commerce and Industry [2] and the other in the Department of Welfare [3], were set up, both being required to act in close co-operation with the other civil and military Departments concerned. The Government also issued a notification to the prefectural governors inviting their co-operation in regard to industrial reorganisation. [4] The notification reiterated the Government's policy of maintaining as many workers as possible in employment by providing the necessary facilities for such changes of occupation as the situation might require, and called attention to the new Division established in the Department of Commerce and Industry for dealing with this question. It also stated that special officials would be appointed and offices set up in local areas, with the aid of Government subsidies, to assist industrial undertakings in obtaining orders and carrying out any transformations that might be necessary, and to help the smaller industrialists and tradesmen affected by the emergency to organise themselves and thus strengthen their position.

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[1] Cf. *Shakai Seisaku Jiho*, Sept. 1938. Reference may be made in this connection to a resolution, adopted on 13 August 1938 at a meeting of the Political Committee of the Japanese Trade Union Congress, which drew attention to the unemployment in the peace industries, due to the emergency measures, and advocated: (1) the introduction of an eight-hour working day and a two-shift system; (2) State intervention to ensure the compulsory engagement of the unemployed in the munitions industries; and (3) the institution of a system of unemployment compensation and the introduction of a labour service, in addition to vocational training schemes, with a view to preventing unemployed workers in receipt of compensation from becoming work-shy (*Naigai Shakai Mondai Chosa Shiryo*, 25 Aug. 1938).

[2] This Division was established by Imperial Order on 21 September 1938 (*Kampo*, 22 Sept. 1938), its main function being to deal with questions relating to the reinforcement or reorganisation of certain branches of industry, with the assistance of advisers selected from among high Government officials and others for their industrial experience or technical knowledge and appointed for a period of two years. It consists of three Sections: one to carry out a general survey of the situation, direct the work of the prefectural information officers, and co-ordinate their action; another to deal with the distribution of the orders available among different undertakings and also with the supply of the materials required for production; and a third to settle such questions as the grant of loans and subsidies and the provision of technical assistance.

[3] This Division was established by Imperial Order on 4 October 1938 (*Kampo*, 5 October 1938); it also consists of three Sections; one to deal with unemployment questions; another to deal with questions connected with the registration of vocational qualifications, occupational readjustment, and placing; and a third to organise vocational training and relief work, distribute home work, etc.

[4] Circular dated 13 September 1938 issued by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry (*Shakai Seisaku Jiho*, Nov. 1938).

Reorganisation of Employment Exchanges

It has been seen that, in the scheme for combating unemployment which was adopted by the Central Unemployment Commission, the employment exchanges were given the important task of organising vocational training and retraining and of maintaining close co-operation with employers in transferring workers from the declining to the expanding industries. It was necessary to reorganise the employment exchanges for this and other similar tasks connected with the emergency [1], but the Government, anticipating the need for appropriate machinery for placing, had already settled the question of reorganisation, before the passing of the General Mobilisation Act, by introducing a Bill in the Diet on 1 March 1938 to provide for the State management of the exchanges and the extension of their functions. [2] The Bill was passed in due course, and the new Act was promulgated on 31 March 1938. [3]

The purpose of the employment exchange system was defined in the Act as the proper distribution of workers, and provision was made for the administration of the exchanges by the Government, it being explicitly stated that no other agency would be authorised to undertake placing work.

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[1] When the system of employment exchanges was established in 1921, following the ratification of the Unemployment Convention, 1919 (No. 2), its main object was the relief of unemployment. In later years the exchanges were called upon to provide for the proper distribution of workers, in order to cope with a rapid expansion of the productive capacity of munition factories. To meet this need, the Employment Exchanges Act was amended in 1936, and the supervision and co-ordination of the employment exchanges were transferred from the employment exchange boards in Tokyo and seven other localities to the prefectural governments under the Department of the Interior, with the object of adapting the exchanges to local conditions. At the same time, the prefectural governments were authorised to establish new exchanges on their own initiative. As a result of this, the number of exchanges increased from 694 in August 1936 to 745 in January 1938, and the number of workers placed through the exchanges from 47,810 during August 1936 to 92,064 during September 1937. The exchanges, however, were still administered by the local governments, and these, it has been stated, had proved unable to cope with the task. For this reason it was decided to nationalise the system of employment exchanges (*Rodo Jiho*, March 1938).

[2] Reference may be made in this connection to a memorandum submitted to the Government on 25 February 1938 by the National Confederation of Industrial Associations, urging the continuation of private employment agencies, subject to the necessary supervision, as they had been found useful in practice for securing an adequate supply of labour for factories and mines, particularly female labour for textile factories, and calling attention to the desirability of establishing regulations for the uniform application of the proposed measure throughout the country (*Kansai Sanren*, July 1938).

[3] For the text of this Act see *Kampo*, 1 April 1938.

Vocational guidance and training as well as placing were to be undertaken by the Government. Exchanges were to be established throughout the country [1], with liaison officers in each exchange for the purpose of keeping in close touch with other exchanges. Part of the work of the exchange was to be carried out by the mayor of each city, town, or village, in order that local requirements might be met. Employment exchange committees were also to be set up within the Central Government and in various local areas. Part of the expenses of the employment exchange and the liaison officer were to be met by the prefecture in which the exchange was situated, but the prefecture might arrange for some of the expenditure to be met by the cities, towns, or villages, under its administration.

As a transitional measure, private agencies for special classes of workers, which had been approved by the Ministry concerned, might be permitted to continue their work. Previous permission from the prefectural governor was necessary in the case of persons recruiting workers for their own purposes.[2]

In order to deal with the expansion of the employment exchange system, an Employment Division [3] was also set up in the Ministry of Welfare under the direct control of the Minister.

Vocational Training and Retraining

There was a lack of trained workers in Japan even before the rapid industrial development of recent years. There were complaints of shortage of labour, and more especially of skilled labour, in various industries before the outbreak of

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[1] It was proposed to abolish the existing exchanges and set up 400 new ones in their place—one for every fifteen to twenty thousand inhabitants, in accordance with local requirements—and the expenditure involved in this reorganisation was estimated at 7,000,000 yen (*Kansai Sanren*, July 1938).

[2] *Rodo Jiho*, March 1938.

[3] The Division was established by an Imperial Order of 16 April 1938 (*Kampo*, 18 April 1938), and comprises three Sections—the Employment Section, the Supervision Section, and the Employment Exchanges Section. The Employment Section deals with matters relating to the enforcement of the Act guaranteeing re-employment to men demobilised after military service, vocational guidance, national employment registration, and unemployment relief. The Supervision Section handles matters relating to the supervision of employment exchanges, training of personnel for employment offices, and the employment exchange committees. The Employment Exchanges Section attends to matters relating to the business of employment exchanges, their co-ordination and unification, fee-charging employment agencies, undertakings for supplying labourers by contract, and the recruitment of workers.

hostilities in China [1]. But adequate arrangements for vocational training and retraining to meet this shortage became more and more urgently necessary as the demand from the munitions and other war industries increased. One of the first steps taken by the Government, pending the reorganisation of the employment exchanges described above, was to institute a system of itinerant squads, under the control of the Department of Home Affairs, to assist in employment and vocational guidance; the system came into operation on 1 October 1937. [2] Another step, calculated to ensure systematic vocational training for juveniles who entered employment on leaving school, was to require the prefects to co-operate with the employment exchanges in co-ordinating and supervising the vocational guidance of juveniles of school-leaving age. In October 1938, a Circular containing instructions in regard to placing juveniles when they left their elementary schools was addressed to the prefects by the Ministers of Welfare and of Public Instruction. [3] A series of Imperial Orders relating to vocational training has also been issued, in pursuance of the provisions of the General Mobilisation Act.

These Orders, promulgated on 30 March 1939, came into

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[1] Reports appeared in the press (*Jiji Shimpo*, 13 Nov. 1936, and *Tokyo Nichi-Nichi*, 1 Dec. 1936) of a shortage of skilled workers in the heavy industries, of female workers in the textile industry—attributed generally to the absorption of these workers in industries paying higher wages—and of workers in the cotton-spinning industry—due to the increase in the number of spindles and also to the improved agricultural conditions.

[2] These squads were to give vocational guidance to young persons and to collaborate with the employment agencies and the authorities in cities, towns, and villages, with a view to meeting the demand for labour. Those accepting employment in a place far removed from their usual place of residence were to be accompanied and protected by a member of the squad. (*Shakai Seisaku Jiho*, March 1938).

[3] The Circular (dated 26 October 1938) stated that the prefects would have increased responsibility in the work of co-ordinating and supervising the vocational guidance of juveniles of school-leaving age. The elementary schools, in close collaboration with the employment exchanges, were to give preliminary information in regard to the employment situation to pupils who were to take their final examinations at the end of the following school year, as well as tests of vocational ability, and to intimate to the prefectural authorities the approximate number of juveniles likely to seek employment. The employment exchanges were to carry out enquiries into the conditions of work in different undertakings, and these undertakings were to be required to inform the employment exchanges of vacancies which could be filled by juveniles. The exchanges were then to determine the number of juveniles to be employed in each undertaking, on the basis of the information received from the undertakings and the juveniles' individual aptitudes. Every possible assistance was to be given to the juveniles to enable them to secure employment, so that they might acquire skill with the least possible loss of time (*Kampo*, 26 Oct. 1938).

effect on 5 April 1939.[1] They required all heads of undertakings engaged in operations included in a schedule drawn up by the Minister of Welfare, and normally employing more than 200 workers over 16 years of age, to organise a technical training course for a certain number of workers. The Minister was also empowered to extend this provision to employers who had less than 200 but more than 50 workers over 16 years of age in their factories, provided that the workers in question were engaged in one of the scheduled processes. Twenty-two kinds of work were scheduled by the Minister, all connected with the metal-refining and machine tool industries. The technical branches in which training was to be given numbered 61, and not more than 6 per cent. of the total number of workers in each factory were to be trained.

The training was to be confined to workers over 14 and under 17 years of age, who had attended a higher primary school for two years, or had received another form of education recognised as equivalent by the Minister of Education. The normal period of training was to be three years, but this might be reduced to two years in special cases, with the permission of the competent Minister, or to less than two years if the requirements of the war made it necessary.

Every employer was required to communicate to the prefect or the head of the mines inspection department for his district the syllabus of the training course to be provided for his workers. The prefect or head of the mines inspection department was entitled to call upon the employer to make any changes that might be found necessary in the syllabus, and also to take steps to ensure that the necessary equipment for technical training was installed. During the three years' training, the workers were to be given in all 220 hours of general and 500 of technical education. These hours were to be considered as working hours within the meaning of the Acts and Orders governing hours of work.

The cost of training was to be borne entirely by the employers, for whom, however, certain compensations and subsidies within the limits of the State budget were to be granted by Ministerial Order. The Minister of Welfare, the prefect, or

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[1] *Chugai Shogyo Shimpo*, 17 March 1939 *Tokyo Asahi*, 30 March 1939; *Kampo*, 31 March 1939.

the head of the mines inspection department, might demand from employers reports on the technical training of their workers, and might send officials to places where training was being carried on, for the purpose of inspection, in accordance with the provisions of the General Mobilisation Act.

Similar provisions were to be applied later to the Japanese colonies and dependencies.

The Minister of Education might, moreover, call upon certain universities, technical schools, and training institutions, to train a number of technicians in certain subjects, both numbers and subjects to be specified by himself; for this purpose he might require the universities and other institutions to make changes in the number of students admitted, the subjects taught, etc. The syllabus for the training of technicians was to be submitted by the head of the university or school to the Minister, who was entitled to make changes in it. The Minister might require the head of the university or school to present reports on the training of technicians, and might send officials to make inspections. Subsidies and compensation were to be granted in accordance with the provisions of the Order applying this system. This Order applied also to the Japanese colonies and dependencies.

Regulation of Labour Supply

With the gradual extension of the scope of the operations in China, it became necessary, on the one hand, to utilise the entire supply of skilled labour available in the country and, on the other hand, to regulate its distribution so as to ensure that it should be employed profitably and with due regard for the national interest. Restrictions were therefore imposed on the engagement of skilled workers. An Imperial Order was issued on 24 August 1938 concerning the placing of graduates of technical schools and colleges qualified for employment in the chemical industry, transport, shipbuilding, mining and metallurgy, and mechanical or electrical engineering.[1] By

[1] Under this Order, a special committee consisting of the officials and representatives of the undertakings concerned was to be set up, with the Minister of Welfare as Chairman, for adjusting the supply of qualified workers in accordance with the requirements of the situation, and no employer might employ a larger number than that allotted to him, penalties being provided for any infringement of the provisions. The Department of Welfare was to receive regularly from the Department of Education a list of students of technical schools and colleges who were about to complete their studies, together with their qualifications, as well as a statement from the employers of their precise requirements (*Kampo*, 24 Aug. 1938).

an Imperial Order of 30 March 1939 [1], issued under the provisions of the General Mobilisation Act, skilled workers and technicians were classified in four groups according to their qualifications and experience, and might not be engaged except by the permission of the employment exchange for the locality where they were working or receiving technical training; the director of the exchange might require them to report to him and might appoint officials to make inspections. The Order affected 93 skilled trades in the machine tool, metal and mining industries, enumerated by the Minister of Welfare, in respect of which regulation appeared to him necessary in view of the requirements of national defence. It was to have effect in Japanese colonies, but did not apply to the engagement of workers by the State.

The next step was to secure a complete census of skilled workers. As has already been seen, provision was made in the General Mobilisation Act for a plan for the registration of vocational qualifications (Section 21). This plan was put into effect by five Orders concerning respectively persons engaged in the medical profession, technicians and persons with training for or experience of specialised work in industry, seamen, veterinary doctors, and persons employed by the State.

Under the first Order [2], all doctors, dentists, chemists, and hospital attendants of either sex, were required to notify the prefect in whose area they worked of their vocational qualifications.

The scope of the second Order [3] was very wide, and covered a large section of the population. Under its terms, all Japanese male subjects between 16 and 50 years of age residing in Japan proper—with the exception of those engaged in military or naval service and attached to the army or navy—who belonged to one of four specified categories were required to notify their vocational qualifications and other details to the local employment exchange for registration, both the

[1] This Order came into force on 20 April 1939 (*Kampo*, 31 March 1939).

[2] This Order was issued on 23 August 1938 and came into force on the day of its publication (*Kampo*, 24 Aug. 1938). According to a Government estimate, more than 210,000 persons were affected by it, including about 50,000 doctors, 21,000 dentists, 26,000 chemists, and 113,000 male and female hospital attendants (*Chugai Shogyo Shimpo*, 24 Aug. and 4 Sept. 1939).

[3] This Order was issued on 6 January 1939 and came into force on 20 January 1939 (*Kampo*, 7 Jan. 1939). The number of persons affected by it was estimated at 5,300,000 (*Naigai Shakai Mondai Chosa Shiryo*, 25 June 1939).

workers and their employers being responsible for the notification.

The four categories in question were: (1) any person who, at the date when the Order was issued, had been engaged regularly for more than three months in one of the occupations specified by the Minister of Welfare [1]; (2) any person who had been engaged regularly in one of the occupations in question for more than one year during the five years previous to the date of the Order; (3) any person who had completed a course specified by the Minister of Welfare in one of the universities, colleges, or technical schools, indicated by him, or any person holding a similar diploma; and (4) any other person specified by the Minister of Welfare. A vocational qualifications booklet was to be delivered to all persons on the register, and regulations on the lines of this Order were to be enforced in the colonial territories.

The third Order, concerning seamen, which was promulgated on 28 January 1939 [2], provided that persons belonging to certain groups—with the exception of those in the service of the army or navy, or members of the medical, dental or pharmaceutical professions—must, not later than 15 April 1939, and not later than 15 July in each succeeding year, supply the Maritime Division of the Bureau of Communications in their district of residence with the details of their vocational qualifications. The groups in question were: (*a*) any person holding a seaman's certificate; (*b*) any person who had completed his training within the three previous years in one of the seamen's training institutes specified by the Minister of Communications, or who had within the three previous years left a vessel on board which he had been serving since completing his training; and (*c*) any person with more than one year's service on board a vessel covered by the Seamen's Act [3], who had left the vessel within the three previous years. [4]

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[1] In an Order of 18 January 1939, the Minister specified 56 occupations in the metallurgical, machine tool, chemical, transport and communications industries.

[2] This Order came into force on the date of its promulgation (*Kampo*, 30 Jan. 1939).

[3] *Kampo*, 14 August 1937; for the text of this Act, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1937-Jap. 1.

[4] The Order did not refer to persons on board such vessels, as they were already under administrative supervision in consequence of their being registered with the competent authorities.

Under the fourth Order, all persons authorised by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to practise as veterinary doctors were required to notify their vocational qualifications to the prefectural authorities of their place of residence once in every four years.[1]

The fifth Order [2] applied to persons in State employment, such as, for instance, Government undertakings for printing and for the manufacture of tobacco or army clothing, the provisions of the Order of 6 January 1939 concerning workers with specialised industrial training (see above), subject to certain modifications. [3]

Finally, when the arrangements for the registration of vocational qualifications were completed, compulsory labour service was introduced by an Imperial Order of 7 July 1939 [4] for the first time in the history of the country, in accordance with the General Mobilisation Act (Section 4), which empowered the Government to require any Japanese subject to take part in the work of general mobilisation. The Order stated that compulsion would be resorted to only to the extent to which national defence requirements could not be met through the public employment exchanges and methods of voluntary recruitment, and that only specialised industrial workers to whom the Order of 6 January 1939 applied were liable to be mobilised. Such persons might be assigned to any work undertaken by the State and declared to be general mobilisation work under the General Mobilisation Act.

In order to give effect to this measure, it was proposed

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[1] This Order was issued on 3 February 1939 and came into force on the day of its publication (*Kampo*, 4 Feb. 1939). The first registration of this kind was to be effected in 1939.

[2] This was an inter-departmental Order which was issued on 18 February 1939 and came into force on the same day (*Kampo*, 18 Feb. 1939).

[3] All these five Orders prescribed that the particulars to be notified for registration should include the name, sex, date of birth, place of residence, military status, number in the professional register, specialised branch of the profession practised or studied, professional *curriculum vitae*, income or salary, state of health, and number of dependants, of the person concerned, and any other information specified in Ministerial Orders, as well as a statement showing whether the person concerned was married or unmarried, and willing to accept employment in one of the occupations specified as work of general mobilisation. The Orders also empowered the competent authorities to test or examine the vocational qualifications of the persons on their respective registers and to require them to submit the papers necessary to facilitate supervision.

[4] *Kampo*, 8 July 1939. This Order, which was supplemented on 11 July 1939 by a series of Ministerial Orders, came into force on 15 July 1939 (*Kampo*, 8 and 11 July 1939). The number of persons affected was estimated at 5,300,000 (*Naigai Shakai Mondai Chosa Shiryo*, 25 June 1939).

that detailed plans should be prepared, showing the order in which the workers in question were to be called up. These plans would take account of a number of factors, such as the place where the work was to be carried out and the vocational qualifications, physical capacity, family circumstances, and personal wishes, of the workers, on the basis of the data provided by the 400 public employment exchanges.[1]

All persons called up for compulsory labour service were to receive an allowance, intended to compensate them for any material loss they might incur owing to their mobilisation. The rates of the allowances were to be fixed by the Minister responsible for the supervision of the undertaking to which the worker was assigned, after consultation with the Minister of Welfare, account being taken of the wages or other income of the persons concerned before they were called up for compulsory service, the nature of the work, and the place where it was carried out. The cost of transporting mobilised and demobilised workers was to be dealt with in separate special regulations.

Mobilisation and demobilisation arrangements were to be left entirely to the Ministry of Welfare, and its decisions were to be applied by the prefects. State administrative departments which required compulsory labour were asked to supply the Ministry of Welfare with lists of the vacant posts to be filled, and to keep the Ministry informed of any changes in the lists, and of suggested measures for demobilisation.[2]

Plan for the Future

A statement[3] was recently published by the Director of the Government Planning Board[4] concerning the plan which the Cabinet adopted on 4 July 1939 for providing the supply of labour required during the current financial year. The

[1] As has already been stated above, the Order of 6 January 1939 provided for the registration of these particulars by the public employment exchanges.

[2] *Shuho*, 19 July 1939; *Shokugyo Jiho*, June 1939.

[3] *Chugai Shogyo Shimpo*, 5 July 1939.

[4] This Board was set up by an Imperial Order of 28 October 1937, which came into force on the date of its promulgation (*Kampo*, 25 Oct. 1937). It replaced the old Planning Bureau and Bureau of National Resources. Its functions, which are of an advisory character, include the co-ordination of national policy, the examination of measures proposed by the various Ministers, and their budget estimates, and the unification of the schemes for general mobilisation. It is under the direct control of the Prime Minister, and has some 50 senior civil servants attached to it, in addition to experts on different questions, who act as advisers.

statement points out that the supplementary labour force necessary for industry, mining, transport, and communications, including technicians and workers with special training as well as those required for employment in Manchuria and occupied areas in China, has been estimated at 1,100,000 persons, and that this supply is to be drawn from young persons who completed their elementary school education in March 1939, industrial workers who became unemployed as a result of the dislocation caused by the enforcement of the general mobilisation plan [1], workers engaged in agriculture, commerce, and other branches of activity, who may become unemployed as a result of the possible application of the proposed measures of rationalisation, and Korean emigrants who have settled in Japan. Unmarried women without a definite occupation are also to be urged to seek employment. The plan also contains proposals for a proper distribution of the supply of skilled workers, for increasing the facilities for retraining, and for raising the standard of efficiency of the workers. With this end in view, greater attention is to be paid to the workers' health and safety, and to improving their living conditions and means of daily transport between their homes and their places of employment, together with other similar questions.

This plan has been criticised, and the view has been expressed that the sources mentioned in it could hardly be expected to yield the additional supply of labour required, which is as much as 23 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in industry, mining, transport, and communications, at the end of 1938, and over 200 per cent. of the increase for that year. In justification of this criticism, it is stated that only 38 per cent. of the juveniles who left elementary schools in March 1937 took up work, while the majority of the remainder continued their studies, and that among those who started work about 54 per cent. were absorbed by their parents' concerns ; that in June 1937 the Korean emigrant workers in Japan numbered only 730,000, most of whom were employed in mining in certain parts of the country, and that for various reasons an appreciable increase in their number does not seem practicable ; that the key industries require the whole of

[1] For an estimate made by the Government Planning Board of the number of workers likely to be affected by unemployment owing to the enforcement of the general mobilisation plan, see above, p. 138.

their normal personnel and that there is little scope for reduction in the other industries; and, finally, that agriculture, although it is of national importance, already suffers from a shortage of labour due to the exodus of rural workers to industrial centres and emigration to Manchuria.[1]

On the other hand, it has been held that the industrial structure of the country is in process of transformation, and that the various general mobilisation measures should be regarded as parts of a comprehensive plan, which takes full account of this transition. According to this view, further rationalisation in all branches of industry, commerce, and even agriculture, has become indispensable, this being the only means of obtaining fresh supplies of labour; supporters of this attitude also attach considerable importance to the task of distributing the labour supply, which has been attributed to the reorganised employment exchanges, and to retraining.[2]

[1] *Toyo Keizai Shimpo*, 15 July 1939.

[2] Cf. an article on "The New Phase in the Control of Labour", by Mr. KAWASAKI, a member of the Government Planning Board, in *Sangyo Kumiai*, Aug. 1939.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN WARTIME

The Compensation of War Victims[1]

France

The question of compensation for war victims is governed in France by a number of Acts, passed since 1918, relating respectively to military pensions (Act of 31 March 1919), pensions for civilian victims (Acts of 24 June and 28 July 1921), and vocational retraining, placing, and supplementary assistance for disabled men and survivors (Act of 2 January 1918 concerning the National Office for Ex-Service Men and War Victims, Act of 26 April 1924 concerning the obligation to employ war victims, etc.

The various changes made in those measures—chiefly in order to adapt the rates of compensation to the purchasing power of the currency—have not modified to any great extent the basic principles of the original legislation, and consequently the present regulations governing compensation for disabled men, widows, orphans, and ascendants, are mainly those which were drawn up after the war of 1914-1918.

An analysis is given below of the principal provisions, including a Decree of 20 January 1940, governing medical aid and the right to a pension.

In making this survey, due account will be taken of the extensive efforts of the public authorities to supplement the statutory compensation by additional assistance, the value of which must not be underestimated.

The supplementary assistance granted, for instance, to orphans and to the children of severely disabled men (wards of the nation), although not strictly prescribed by the legislation, and therefore dependent to some extent on the discretion of the authorities, constitutes an important part of the compensation payable to war victims.

This account of the system will therefore include certain measures for the benefit of war victims which go beyond the scope of the statutory provisions concerning pensions; it will not deal with vocational retraining and placing, which will form the subject of a separate article.

Compensation for Ex-Service Men and their Survivors

Scope and Risk Covered.

The scope of the Act of 31 March 1919 and the risks covered are defined in Section 1, which, after giving expression to the gratitude

[1] This is the second of a series of articles analysing the provision made in certain belligerent countries for the compensation of war victims. For the first article, dealing with Germany, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLI, No. 1, Jan. 1940, pp. 47-63.

of the Republic to those who fought for the safety of the country, states that ex-service men suffering from infirmities brought about by the war and the survivors of those who died for their country are entitled to compensation.

Pensions are payable in respect for :

(1) Wounds the presence of which was noted before the soldier returned home, unless it is proved that they were not due to the events of the war or to accidents suffered as a result of or in connection with the soldier's service (the burden of proof resting on the State) ;

(2) Infirmities resulting from diseases caused or aggravated by the fatigue, danger, or accidents, to which the soldier was exposed as a result of or in connection with his service.

An accident is deemed to have been a result of service if it occurred at a place and time at which the soldier was subject to military authority.

An accident is deemed to be connected with service it if occurred at a place and time at which the soldier was subject to military authority, but was not caused by the performance of his service ; the term " as a result of or in connection with service " is to be interpreted in the widest sense.

Unless the State can show proof to the contrary, any disease affecting a soldier taking part in fighting operations is presumed to be attributable to his service if it is noted within a certain time limit.

The presumption that a disease is attributable to military service applies (*a*) during any period when the soldier or seaman is taking part in fighting operations ; (*b*) during the 30 days following any such period ; (*c*) until the soldier or seaman is discharged, provided he has taken part in fighting operations for 90 days, which need not be consecutive.

In the case of soldiers and seamen who have not been discharged before the termination of hostilities, the period defined under (*c*) expires when hostilities end.

A Decree of 20 January 1940 stipulates that, failing a presumption thus established, the person concerned may use any means of proving that a disease is attributable to military service. Conversely, where the presumption exists, the State may use any means of proving the contrary.

Benefits Guaranteed.

The guaranteed benefits include :

(1) Medical and surgical treatment, including the supply of orthopaedic appliances and artificial limbs ;

(2) A pension, with various supplements ;

(3) Supplementary assistance in the form of relief, allowances, or loans guaranteed by the National Office for Ex-service Men and War Victims.

Medical and Surgical Treatment and the Supply of Appliances

The State must provide all soldiers, seamen, and nurses, in receipt of pensions under the Act of 31 March 1919 with such medical and surgical attention and drugs as may be required by the infirmity or disease, contracted or aggravated by their service, in respect of which their pension was granted. These benefits must be granted throughout the lifetime of the person concerned; the entire cost is borne by the State.

Persons entitled to free medical attention can choose their own doctor or surgeon, provided that the practitioner in question accepts the conditions of supervision and payment.

The free choice of a druggist may be made only from among those whose names figure on a list approved by the Ministry of Pensions. In practice, all druggists who accept the national scale of payment are approved.

If hospital treatment is considered necessary, the medical attendant must send a certificate to this effect, if possible six days in advance, to a supervisory commission, and indicate the public or private institution selected by the patient.

If a private institution is chosen, the doctor must add a declaration from that institution to the effect that it can accept the patient. Private institutions may not accept persons in receipt of free treatment unless they have been approved by the supervisory commission mentioned above.

In urgent cases, the patient may be admitted to hospital without these formalities, but the institution, whether public or private, must inform the departmental supervisory commission as soon as possible.

Hospital treatment must always be given either in the appropriate hospital nearest the patient's home or in an approved private institution of his choice—and in either case the institution must be within the area of the faculty of medicine for the patient's place of residence. The only exception to this rule is for spa treatment.

The medical expenses refunded by the State include:

(*a*) Payment at a fixed rate for all medical interventions and travelling expenses, the practitioner being entitled in respect of each medical intervention (consultation, visit, surgical operation, etc.) to the fees prescribed in a scale approved by the public authorities after consulting the organisations of the medical profession;

(*b*) The cost of pharmaceutical products according to a scale approved by the authorities;

(*c*) The cost of the pensioner's board in the public hospital in which he is treated.

If the patient is admitted to a private institution, the expenses borne by the State include the cost of any medical interventions at the special rate laid down for medical practitioners and the full cost of maintenance (food, special diet, etc.).

These expenses are refunded on the basis of the price per day charged in the civilian wards of the public hospital nearest the

patient's domicile, in which he would have been treated if he had not requested admission to a private institution.

Persons under treatment who are subsequently sent to a hospital are entitled to free transport from their place of residence to the institution in question.

Artificial Limbs and Orthopaedic Appliances.

Disabled persons are entitled, under the supervision and through the agency of the State, to the supply and maintenance of artificial limbs, orthopaedic appliances, and accessories.

A pensioner may select his appliances from among the approved types suited to his infirmity.

Two appliances are provided in the first instance, subject to the following reservations. Persons who have suffered amputation are entitled, in respect of each limb that has been amputated, to two appliances of the same type or of different types, save in certain exceptional cases.

Persons who have not suffered amputation and whose injuries are healed are entitled to two appliances of the same type or of different types in respect of each infirmity.

Persons who have not suffered amputation but whose injuries are still in course of development are only entitled to a single appliance, but this is renewed whenever its condition, or a change in the state of the injury, makes it necessary.

When a person who has suffered amputation or disarticulation cannot wear an artificial limb or can do so only with pain, he is granted a higher rate of pension, t e supplement being 5 per cent. This supplement is awarded by the Minister of Pensions on the advice of the invalidity board after consulting the committee on orthopaedic appliances. As artificial limbs are of little practical use in cases of disarticulation of the shoulder or hip, persons in this category are automatically considered as being unable to wear any appliances.

The appliances are repaired free of charge by the State ; wherever possible, the repairs must be carried out by the workshops attached to the centres for the supply of appliances or by the makers.

Appliances are renewed free of charge when, in the opinion of the committee on appliances, they are worn out or beyond repair.

Pensions and Allowances

The pensions and allowances include the basic pension and various statutory supplements (children's bonuses, etc.).

In addition to this statutory compensation for an injury caused by military service, supplementary assistance is granted ; the nature of this assistance and the rules governing it will be considered later.

Invalidity Pensions.

Invalidity pensions, whether permanent or temporary, depend on the degree of invalidity.

According to French legislation, invalidity means physical incapacity ; in reality, this amounts to a prescribed average degree of incapacity laid down for different injuries in a scale ; these degrees of incapacity are binding on the authorities responsible for assessing invalidity.

The degree of invalidity corresponding to certain clearly defined lesions (a mutilation, for example) is absolutely binding : the degree of invalidity assessed in respect of the loss of a finger or a limb, or in respect of some clearly defined functional injury, must be that laid down in the scale.

When, however, the invalidity is due to affections which may vary considerably in their degree of seriousness (for example, a disease of the heart, or neuritis) the scale contains maximum and minimum figures which alone are binding, the authorities being left in many cases quite a wide margin of assessment.

There are also certain specific diseases for which a binding rate of invalidity is laid down ; pulmonary tuberculosis, for instance, when confirmed by bacteriological or clinical evidence, is always deemed to involve complete invalidity within the meaning of the Act.

The right to a pension does not exist unless the degree of invalidity is at least 10 per cent. in the case of a wound or 20 per cent. in the case of a disease or the aggravation of a pre-existing infirmity.

A pension granted on the ground of aggravation of a pre-existing infirmity is based only on the aggravation unless the total degree of invalidity due to the infirmity as aggravated is 60 per cent. or more, in which case it is based on the total degree of invalidity.

Pension claims must be presented within five years from the discovery of the infirmity and from the termination of service. Nevertheless, when the infirmity results from wounds due to acts of war or to accidents incurred through or in connection with military service, there is no time limit.

Rates of Invalidity Pensions.

The rate of the invalidity pension varies according to the military rank of the claimant, the origin of his infirmities, and the number of children maintained by him.

Military rank. The influence of the military rank, which was originally very marked (under the Act of 31 March 1919), has declined considerably since additional benefits have been paid to adapt pensions to changes in the cost of living. These benefits are calculated, irrespective of the rank of the pensioner, on the basis of the pension payable to a private ; as they represent 154 per cent. of the amount of the initial pension, the influence of rank is now of minor importance. In 1919 the pension of a battalion commander was about $2^1/_2$ times that of a private, but to-day it is only about $1^1/_2$ times.

Origin of the infirmities. At first, the origin of the infirmities did not affect the compensation, the amount of which was always the same for any given degree of invalidity, irrespective of whether it was due to a wound received on active service or to a disease aggra-

vated during home service. The situation was changed by a Legislative Decree of 16 July 1935, which reduced by about a third the cost of living supplement for non-combatants. In addition, those who were in combatant services, irrespective of whether they receive an invalidity pension or not, are entitled to an old-age pension of 500 francs a year between the ages of 50 and 55 years and 1,200 francs a year from the age of 55 years onward.

Children maintained by the pensioner. The basic pension is supplemented by a bonus in respect of children, if any. This bonus is payable for each child up to the age of 18 years, but it is continued beyond that age in the case of children suffering from an incurable infirmity which prevents them from earning their living, unless they are maintained in an institution at the expense of the State.

Pension scale. Subject to the above considerations, the rates at present in force for privates who formerly served with the combatant forces are as follows:

Degree of invalidity (per cent.)	Total amount of basic pension [1] (francs)	Supplement for each child under 18 years (francs)
10	609.60	76.20
20	1,219.20	152.40
30	1,828.80	228.60
40	2,438.40	304.80
50	3,048.00	381.00
60	3,657.60	467.20
70	4,277.20	533.40
80	4,876.80	609.60
85	5,982.35	647.70
90	6,376.80	685.80
95	6,978.40	723.90
100	7,580.00	762.00

Supplements for certain categories of pensioners. Certain categories of pensioners receive in addition to the basic pension supplements varying according to the seriousness of their condition or the nature of their injuries. Those who have suffered amputation, for example, receive a supplement ranging from 928 francs a year (amputation of the foot) to 9,280 francs (disarticulation of the shoulder).

Seriously disabled men who have not suffered amputation, but whose degree of invalidity as a result of war injuries is 85 per cent. or over, receive a supplement ranging from 2,320 to 5,800 francs a year.

Blinded men receive a supplement of 11,368 francs a year.

Those requiring the constant attendance of another person receive a special allowance, independent of those just mentioned,

[1] When the former combatant reaches the age of 50 years, he receives in addition to this pension an allowance of 500 francs a year, which is increased to 1,200 when he reaches the age of 55 years.

which amounts to 18,424 francs a year (19,484 in the case of blinded men).

Those suffering from tuberculosis receive an allowance of 10,600 francs a year to enable them to obtain the necessary care, provided that they accept special medical supervision.

There are other supplements, such as those for persons suffering from several infirmities one of which in itself is deemed to be equivalent to complete invalidity.

Widows' and Orphans' Pensions.

Widows' and orphans' pensions, like those paid to disabled men, vary according to the military rank of the deceased, but, as was mentioned above, the influence of rank has diminished considerably since supplements have been paid to adapt pensions to the rise in the cost of living.

Widows' pensions also vary according to whether or not the marriage took place before the occurrence or the aggravation of the infirmity from which the husband suffered.

Illegitimate children are entitled to a pension only if they are recognised voluntarily or as the result of a ruling by a court of law, and only if they were conceived before the occurrence or aggravation of the infirmities in question.

Widows' and orphans' pensions also vary according to the relationship between the cause of death and the military service of the deceased.

As the combined influence of all these conditions is somewhat complex, examples will be given below of the rates of widows' pensions in the cases that arise most frequently in actual practice. Examples will then be given of how the rates apply to orphans when there is no widow or when the widow is not competent to claim her rights.

Pension when the widow does not remarry. (1) When death can be attributed to the soldier's service, and the marriage took place before the occurrence or aggravation of the injury or disease, the widow of a private receives a pension of 3,048 francs a year. The marriage is deemed to have taken place before the injury or disease if at the date of the marriage the affection caused or aggravated by military service was not sufficiently serious to justify a fatal prognosis.

(2) When death can be attributed to military service, and the marriage took place after the occurrence or aggravation of the injury or disease, the widow of a private receives a pension of 2,032 francs a year. This pension (reversionary pension) is payable only if the marriage lasted for not less than two years.

(3) When death is not attributable to military service, but the husband at the time of death was drawing a pension in respect of invalidity of 60 per cent. or over, the widow of a private receives a

pension of 2,032 francs a year.[1] This reversionary pension is payable only if the marriage took place before the occurrence or aggravation of the infirmities in respect of which the invalidity pension was granted.

An exception to the rule of prior marriage is made in the case of women who marry a disabled ex-service man whose degree of invalidity is 80 per cent. or over.

Pension when the widow remarries. A widow who marries again may, in the course of the year following her remarriage, give up her pension and receive in exchange a lump sum representing three annual instalments of her previous pension. If the widow takes advantage of t is possibility and there are children who are minors, the widow's pension is transferred to the children until the last of them reaches majority. The pension is, however, reduced to the initial rate prescribed by the Act of 31 March 1919, which is 800 francs a year in the case of the widow of a private.

If the widow continues to draw her pension, the amount is also reduced to the figure just mentioned.

Bonuses for children. A supplement of 762 francs a year is payable, in addition to the widow's pension, in respect of each child under the age of 18 years. The supplement is paid beyond that age in the case of children suffering from an incurable infirmity which makes them incapable of earning their living, unless they are maintained in an institution at the expense of the State.

If the widow is not entitled to a pension, any children born of the marriage with the pensioner receive up to the age of 18 years the supplement which they received during the lifetime of their father, irrespective of the cause of his death (see the rates set out above, p. 157).

Orphans' pensions. If the mother dies or forfeits her rights or is not competent to exercise them, the basic pension for orphans who are minors is equal to the pension which would be payable to a widow who did not remarry. Orphans continue to draw this pension up to the age of 21 years.

In addition to the basic pension, a supplement of 762 francs a year per child is paid in respect of each additional orphan under the age of 18 years (no supplement being payable if there is only one orphan).

When the claim to an orphan's pension arises out of the remarriage of the mother, the rate of the pension, as was mentioned, is that fixed for a widow who remarries.

Ascendants' Pensions.

Ascendants' pensions do not depend on the military rank of the deceased; they are payable from the age of 60 years to the father and from the age of 55 years to the mother. No age condition is

[1] The rate is increased to 3,048 francs a year if the husband was in receipt of the special allowance payable to those requiring the constant attendance of another person.

required if the ascendants are infirm, or suffering from an incurable disease, or if the husband or wife of the ascendant entitled to a pension is infirm or suffers from an incurable disease.

A mother who is a widow or divorced or judicially separated or unmarried is considered as satisfying the age condition, even if she is under 55 years of age, provided that she is responsible for the maintenance of one or more children who are infirm or under 21 years of age or serving with the colours.

An ascendant's pension may be claimed by any person (stepfather, stepmother, adoptive parent, etc.) who can prove that he or she brought up and maintained the child and took the place of one or both parents until the child reached majority or was called to the colours.

The ascendants' pensions differ from widows' pensions or invalidity pensions in that they are not granted or continued unless the claimants are in necessitous circumstances.

In order to claim a pension, an ascendant must prove that he is not liable for general income tax or, if he is, that his net income does not exceed by more than 5,000 francs the maximum income which is free of tax.[1]

The rate of pension is fixed at 2,032 francs a year for a single ascendant who is a widow or widower, divorced, or unmarried, and at 1,016 francs a year for an ascendant who has remarried or who married after the death of the soldier in respect of whom the claim arises. These sums are increased by 254 francs a year in respect of each son lost beyond the first.

Rules Concerning Duality of Pensions.

The rules laid down in French legislation concerning duality of pensions are intended mainly to prevent compensation from being paid twice for the same injury. For instance, the same person may not draw an accident pension and a war pension in respect of invalidity resulting from injuries received while working in a munitions factory ; two supplements for family responsibilities may not be paid in respect of the same child, so that if a civil servant in receipt of a military pension is entitled to a supplement for children as part of his salary he must choose between that supplement and the one payable with his military pension ; similarly, a woman may not draw more than one widow's pension.

On the other hand, subject to the reservation concerning the maximum income of ascendants, the military pensions granted to disabled men and to survivors are payable unconditionally, and may therefore be drawn simultaneously with a salary as a civil servant or with wages, or with a pension for long service, a social insurance pension, assistance allowance, etc.

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[1] The maximum income free of tax in 1939 was 10,000 francs a year, so that an unmarried person without family responsibilities or a widow who has not remarried may claim the full ascendant's pension if his or her income does not exceed 15,000 francs a year. In the case of a couple of ascendants, the total income must not exceed 20,000 francs a year.

Supplementary Assistance

The supplementary assistance granted by the public authorities to war victims takes a great variety of forms, a full and detailed account of which would go beyond the scope of the present survey.

The assistance may include the payment of temporary or exceptional relief, the provision of scholarships for orphans, the grant of loans to facilitate the purchase by pensioners of small holdings, cheap houses, etc. With the exception of certain types of relief (such as that payable to a person who cohabited with a deceased soldier), the supplementary assistance is generally paid by an independent public institution, the National Office for Ex-Service Men and War Victims, working under the supervision of the public authorities.

The National Office and its departmental branches are administered by representatives of the authorities, organisations of ex-service men and war victims, and representatives of the various institutions which collaborate in placing activities, the distribution of assistance, etc. The Minister of Pensions is president of the National Office, and the prefects preside over the departmental offices. The administration of the Office is supervised by the Finance Inspection Department and the Court of Accounts.

The Office was established by an Act of 2 January 1918, and acts as a liaison body between the public authorities and the private associations for helping war victims. Its purpose is to centralise information concerning the work of these authorities and organisations, to promote and facilitate the occupational rehabilitation of war victims, to consider possible legislative measures and regulations for the benefit of ex-service men, to supervise the application of such measures, to provide various forms of assistance, and generally speaking to ensure the permanent protection and support which these men are entitled to receive from a grateful country.

In addition to its statutory duties with regard to vocational retraining and placing, the National Office may grant immediate assistance (generally small sums only) in the event of illness, death, etc. ; loans of varying amounts, scholarships to wards of the nation, etc., may also be granted.

The loans granted by the Office may be intended to help retrained disabled men to set up on their own account (the maximum amount being 6,000 francs, repayable over ten years), or to develop the undertakings of ex-service men in handicrafts, trade, industry, or agriculture (up to a maximum of 15,000 francs, repayable over ten years), or to assist pensioners or ex-service men to purchase a cheap dwelling (up to a maximum of 20,000 francs, repayable over ten years).

Some details will be found below as to the rules for granting : (1) loans to facilitate the purchase of cheap houses by pensioners and ex-service men ; (2) scholarships or apprenticeship allowances to wards of the nation.

Loans for the Purchase of Cheap Houses.[1]

War pensioners or ex-service men who take advantage of the credit facilities provided under the legislation concerning cheap dwellings can obtain advances from the National Office for the purchase or construction of houses fulfilling the conditions specified in the legislation.

These advances are of two kinds:

(1) Loans to make up the personal contribution required of applicants;

(2) Loans on mortgage.

Loans to make up the personal contribution. Although fully recognising the desirability of a personal effort by the borrower, the National Office considers that it is its duty to help war pensioners and ex-service men to make the personal contribution required when a house is being built or purchased.

The maximum amount of these loans has been fixed at one-eighth of the value of the building. Interest is payable at 1 per cent., and the loan must be repaid in equal instalments over a period not exceeding ten years; the total amount of the loan may in no case exceed 15,000 francs.

The National Office is entitled to take a mortgage as security, but in such cases it is itself responsible for the cost of this operation.

Loans on mortgage. Loans on mortgage are granted in the case of applicants who have certain personal resources or can provide practically the whole of the sum required for the purchase of a cheap and healthy dwelling.

Persons in those circumstances could doubtless apply to one of the various credit institutions for cheap houses, but the formalities are somewhat numerous and lengthy, more particularly as regards insurance, so that the would-be purchaser might lose his opportunity, and it is therefore to his advantage if he can obtain a loan immediately.

The National Office therefore offers to advance the whole or a fraction of the sum still required for the purchase of the dwelling. This advance is limited to a maximum of 20,000 francs [2], but a supplement of 10 per cent. of the amount of the loan is permitted in order to cover the cost of the mortgage, which is about one-tenth of the actual amount of the loan.

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[1] From Jean SOUQUET: *Code des anciens combattants et des victimes de la guerre* (Paris, 1936).

[2] Special mortgage loans of 25,000 francs bearing 1 per cent. interest and repayable over fifteen years may be granted when the pensioner is unable because of his state of health to contract the life insurance required by building credit funds as a guarantee for the repayment of the loan in the event of the death of the borrower, and is also unable to obtain the special guarantee reserved for uninsurable persons who have been disabled by war injuries. The loans granted under these conditions by the National Office take the place of the advance which an uninsurable disabled man could have received from a building credit fund if his state of health had been considered satisfactory or if his bad health could be attributed entirely to the consequences of the war.

The rate of interest is 3 per cent., and the period of repayment is fixed by agreement with the borrower in each case, subject to a maximum of ten years.

As the advances given in these circumstances are somewhat high, the National Office requires a first mortgage.

It should be noted that these advances may be granted not only when a pensioner or ex-service man purchases a cheap dwelling from a private individual, but also—and indeed more readily—when he purchases a house of his own which has been built by a building society and wishes to pay off the entire cost at once so as to become the owner of the house immediately.

Scholarships and Apprenticeship Allowances for Wards of the Nation.

The granting of scholarships and apprenticeship allowances is the chief method used by the National Office to enable wards of the nation to obtain the fullest possible general education or vocational training.

Apprenticeship allowances. In order to prevent these young persons from entering employment which gives them an immediate opportunity of earning (as minor clerks, page boys, errand boys, specialised labourers, etc.) but has no future, the Office grants apprenticeship allowances to encourage them to learn a trade.

As the remuneration paid to the apprentice is not sufficient for maintenance, the apprenticeship allowances must be reasonably high, in order to induce families to send their children as apprentices, which may involve quite a long and costly training. No fixed rate of subsidy is laid down in the regulations, for the sum granted must vary according to the situation and resources of the family in each case. In practice, different rates are applied according to whether the apprentice is a full orphan or has lost only his father or is a child of a disabled man. In any case, the assistance given by the State could not be fixed at a uniform rate for the whole duration of apprenticeship, because as a rule the apprentice's wage is practically nil at the beginning of his training and rises during the second and particularly during the third year.

Scholarships. Wards of the nation who are undergoing training in a higher elementary or secondary technical school or at a university, or those who are attending courses at higher technical colleges (public or private), may obtain a scholarship which as a rule is sufficient for their maintenance, provided that they have successfully passed an examination showing that they are likely to profit by the course of training in question.

The Office also grants subsidies to enable applicants to study for the above examination, and these may be renewed not more than twice in the event of failure to pass.

In the case of secondary education more particularly, the representatives of the Office are instructed to point out to parents that so many pupils take a course of secondary education that it cannot be considered sufficient to ensure a good situation unless the pupil

completes the full course and supplements it by further study. Various examinations are therefore held in order to keep out those whose ability is insufficient and to ensure that those who seem unlikely to obtain diplomas are not allowed to continue their studies too long, but can be guided into other careers. On the other hand, pupils belonging to families in difficult circumstances receive considerable assistance if they show great aptitude and make satisfactory progress.

The rate of the scholarship varies according to the institution attended by the student and the type of training received.

Residential scholarships are granted only to those whose families do not live in the town in which the institution is situated.

Other candidates normally receive a non-residential scholarship, possibly providing for half board. These scholarships are granted for the whole duration of the course of study, provided the pupil continues to the end.

Supplementary maintenance grants may be made to pupils living at home or receiving half board in the institution, if their family situation justifies such grants.

For higher courses of training, the amount of the scholarship and supplementary grant may not exceed 9,000 francs a year in Paris or 8,000 francs in the provinces.

In addition to the scholarships, special outfit allowances and, in exceptional circumstances, allowances for books and instruments may also be granted.

Compensation for Civilian War Victims

The question of compensation for civilian war victims is governed by an Act of 24 June 1919, as amended by the Act of 28 July 1921.

According to these texts, any French citizen who is not covered by the Act of 31 March 1919 and who, as a result of some war action, receives an injury or contracts a disease resulting in infirmity is entitled to a pension equal to that which would have been awarded to him under that Act if he had been a soldier; the same right is granted to his dependants.

Civilian war victims are thus entitled not only to the cash compensation prescribed in the Act of 31 March 1919, but also to practically all the other advantages granted to ex-service pensioners: vocational retraining, free medical attendance, artificial limbs and appliances, allowances for severely disabled persons, supplementary assistance, etc.

There are, however, two fundamental differences between the conditions for the grant of pensions to civilian war victims and to ex-service men or their dependants.

In the case of an infirmity resulting from illness, civilian war victims are entitled to a pension only in respect of illnesses contracted (and not those aggravated) as a result of ill-treatment or brutality suffered at the hands of the enemy, while ex-service men are entitled to a pension in respect of affections aggravated by their service in much the same way as for those contracted during service.

In the second place, in the case of civilian war victims there is only a very limited presumption of causal connection between the infirmity and the war action to which that infirmity is attributed.

According to Section 2 of the Act relating to civilian victims, the presumption of causal connection is limited to wounds resulting from war operations. Wounds, whether fatal or not, are deemed to be due to war action if they are received during military operations carried on by the allied or enemy armies, or are due to acts of violence committed by the enemy.

The following are also deemed to be due to war action : injuries or death, even after the conclusion of military operations, as a result of the explosion of projectiles, the collapse of buildings, or any other acts which can be ascribed to war conditions because of the state of the premises in which the injury is received ; and death occurring or injuries received during the performance of work imposed on the individual by the enemy, either in captivity or in occupied territory.

In the case of infirmities or death resulting from a disease contracted during hostilities and due to brutality suffered at the hands of the enemy, or to ill-treatment in a fortress or prison camp, the applicant or his representatives must show adequate proof of the facts alleged and of the causal connection between those facts and the infirmities in question.

Compensation for civilian war victims is always paid at the rate applicable to privates or their dependants.

Military Service and Contracts of Employment

Introduction

In continuation of the series of articles on the contracts of employment of workers called up for military service, begun in an earlier issue of the *Review* [1], the following article explains the provisions in force in Belgium, Hungary, and Italy.

In all three countries the essential purpose of the regulations is to ensure the reinstatement of workers, but in Hungary and in Italy there are also certain rules concerning the payment of wages.

In accordance with the legal systems of these countries, the regulations—a term which includes collective agreements in the case of Italy—sometimes make distinctions between different groups of workers, and more particularly between salaried employees and manual workers.

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[1] See *International Labour Review*, Vol. XL, No. 5, Nov. 1939, pp. 654-665.

Belgium

There are two sets of regulations in Belgium for the protection of workers called up for military service: (*a*) the legislation concerning contracts of employment, including the Workers' Contracts of Employment Act of 10 March 1900 and the Salaried Employees' Contracts of Employment Act of 9 August 1922; and (*b*) two special Acts, one of 24 October 1919 concerning the right to reinstatement of persons called up for military service, and the other of 24 July 1939 concerning the rights of citizens recalled for service in exceptional circumstances.

These Acts deal with the right to reinstatement after military service, but they make no reference to the payment of wages or of any special allowance during the period of service.

The nature and extent of the protection granted by the regulations vary according to the circumstances which lead to the individual's being called up. In the case of active military service or a period of military instruction, the protection differs according to whether the individual is a manual worker or a salaried employee. In the case of wartime mobilisation or the recall of men to the colours in exceptional circumstances, the regulations are the same for the two groups of workers.

Active Military Service and Periods of Instruction

Salaried Employees.

The Act of 7 August 1922 provides that when a salaried employee is called up for military service his contract of employment is merely suspended.

Whenever he is called up for active service or recalled to the colours, whether for a period of instruction or because of mobilisation or some other circumstance, his contract is again suspended. If the contract is for an indefinite period, the employer may not terminate it, even with the statutory period of notice, until the employee has been discharged.

A contract concluded for a specified time or piece of work expires when the prescribed period has elapsed or when the work is completed.

Any person replacing an employee who is on service must be engaged by a written contract, and may be dismissed without the statutory notice when the employee is released from military service and returns to his employment.

Workers.

According to the Contracts of Employment Act of 1900, the obligations arising out of a contract of employment lapse in cases of *force majeure*. When, however, the events constituting the *force majeure* are by their nature such that they only temporarily suspend the carrying out of the contract, they do not involve its termination.

It follows that when a worker is called up for military service his contract of employment is terminated, but if he is recalled for a

period of instruction the contract is considered merely as being temporarily suspended.

Wartime Mobilisation and Recall in Exceptional Circumstances

The provisions concerning these two cases are the same for workers and salaried employees.

Wartime Mobilisation.

The Act of 24 October 1919 concerning the right to reinstatement of persons called up for active service applies to all employed persons, including those in the mercantile marine and the shipping industry, but excluding workers in undertakings holding concessions for public services.[1]

When a worker under contract is called up, his contract may not be terminated by the employer on the ground of *force majeure*. An employer who wishes to dismiss a worker engaged for an indefinite period must give not less than three months' notice, unless there is some good reason justifying the dismissal.

The contract of a worker engaged for a specified period is deemed to be prolonged by the whole duration of his period of service. If the unexpired period of his contract is less than three months, it may be prolonged at the end of that period if the worker applies for an extension when he notifies the employer of his return to civil life or his recovery from any war injuries.

Conditions for reinstatement. The worker must apply for reinstatement within 15 days of his release from active service or of his recovery from any illness or wound; if the undertaking has been closed, he must apply within 15 days of the date on which it reopens.

The obligation of the employer lapses when reinstatement is impossible. The legislation makes a distinction between permanent and temporary impossibility. Reinstatement is deemed to be permanently impossible: (*a*) when the undertaking has been destroyed, or there is a shortage of equipment or raw materials, or orders are entirely lacking or insufficient; (*b*) when the worker has lost the whole or part of his fitness for his particular job as a result of mutilation, infirmity, or illness; (*c*) in other circumstances beyond the control of the employer.

If the reinstatement of the worker is only temporarily impossible, the employer must notify him as soon as it becomes possible. The worker is then required to intimate within eight days whether he intends to return to his job or not. The burden of proof that reinstatement is impossible rests on the employer.

Substitutes. A worker may not be refused reinstatement on the grounds that a contract has been concluded with a substitute, unless the substitute is a member of the employer's family living in his

[1] The reinstatement of persons in these services called up during the war of 1914-1918 was dealt with in an Act of 8 August 1919.

household. The employer must give 14 days' notice when terminating the contract of the substitute.

Penalties. An employer who refuses to reinstate a worker must pay damages equal to the remuneration for the statutory three months' notice, in the case of contracts for an indefinite period, or, in the case of a contract for a specified period, the remuneration corresponding to the unexpired period, unless the worker asks to have the contract extended.

Recall in Exceptional Circumstances.

The Act of 24 July 1939 deals with persons recalled to the colours in exceptional circumstances in accordance with Section 53 of the Militia Act—that is to say, when the Government suspends or changes its decision to send a militiaman on leave for an indefinite period, or temporarily recalls to the colours the whole or a certain proportion of some classes.

The Act provides that when a worker is recalled in these circumstances his contract of employment is merely suspended for the period of his service. The text applies to all employed persons without distinction, but it expressly mentions that the Act of 7 August 1922 applies to the contracts of salaried employees; it will be remembered that the provisions of that Act referred to persons called up for service in peace-time or in wartime. The legislation thus fills the gap that formerly existed owing to the fact that the Salaried Employees' Contracts of Employment Act was restricted to that category of workers and the 1919 Act referred only to mobilisation in the event of war.

The new text, which follows the principles of the 1922 rather than of the 1919 legislation, prescribes that contracts concluded for a specified period or job must be carried out only in so far as the worker returns to his employment before the time limit specified in the contract has expired. There is, therefore, no possibility of prolongation.

In contrast with the methods adopted in 1919, no attempt has been made to issue detailed regulations. The preamble to the legislation states that employers must bear in mind that the recalling of workers to the colours merely suspends their contracts, and that consequently the contracts automatically come into force again as soon as the workers in question are released from service.

Substitutes. The contract of a substitute automatically terminates on the day on which the original worker is re-engaged, provided always that it is expressly mentioned in the substitute's contract that he was engaged to replace a worker on military service.

Penalties. The provisions of the Act are deemed to be a matter of public policy, and consequently any agreement to the contrary is null and void.

HUNGARY

Workers called up for national defence in Hungary are protected by the National Defence Act (No. II of 1939) and the Administrative Regulations (No. 9300, of 5 October 1939) concerning compulsory service for national defence, as well as by a number of Orders issued in October 1938 in connection with the exceptional military measures taken at that time, these Orders having been declared applicable, with certain slight changes, to the situation in the autumn of 1939.

The measures in question deal with two problems : the worker's right to reinstatement and the payment of wages during military service. They do not apply to all workers, but only to certain categories, in accordance with the legislation relating to contracts of employment which is in force or in course of preparation for the different groups of workers concerned.

Right to Reinstatement

In the case of certain groups of workers, the law prohibits termination of contracts by the employer. Apart from that, and in a more general way, employers are required to reinstate workers of certain groups when they are released from service.

Termination of Contract.

Order No. 7800 of 29 October 1938 relating to farm bailiffs and Order No. 7400 of 15 October 1938 relating to farm servants (the latter amended by Order No. 8260 of 1 September 1939) provide that the employer may not terminate a contract, even with the prescribed period of notice, if the worker concerned is undergoing a period of special instruction, or has been recalled to the colours for compulsory service in the reserve or the supplementary reserve.

The National Defence Act provides that the contracts of employment of public employees may not be terminated because of military service.

Guarantee of Reinstatement.

According to the National Defence Act and the administrative regulations thereunder, the employer is obliged to reinstate workers of the following categories when they are released from service : (*a*) salaried employees (professional workers) in industrial and commercial undertakings ; (*b*) domestic servants (Act No. XIII of 1876) ; (*c*) farm servants (Act No. XLV of 1907) ; and (*d*) factory workers, journeymen, and shop assistants, as defined in Act No. XVII of 1884 (excluding transport workers, miners, and persons employed in the liberal professions).

This rule applies whenever the worker is called up for military service or for compulsory service for national defence, whether in time of peace or in time of war. Workers are not protected, however, unless they have worked uninterruptedly for not less than

one year in the same establishment, except in the case of those recalled for a period of military instruction or for compulsory service in time of peace.

Conditions of Reinstatement.

The following conditions are laid down for the application of the principle :

(1) The worker must return to his employment within 15 days of his release from service.

(2) The employer's obligation lapses if a substantial change in the situation of the household, works, or undertaking, since the departure of the worker, makes it impossible for him to be employed on his former job, or if the reinstatement of the worker will be likely to ruin the employer.

(3) The legislation restricting the economic activities of the Jewish population (Administrative Regulations No. 7720 of 1939) gives employers the right to refuse to reinstate a Jewish employee after his military service if by so doing they would bring the number of their Jewish employees above the statutory limit.

Payment of Wages

The regulations in force relating to wages apply only to salaried employees in industry and commerce and to farm bailiffs and farm servants. All other workers, including domestic servants, are excluded from this protection.

Salaried Employees in Industry and Commerce.

The rights of salaried employees were laid down in Order No. 7777 of 28 October 1938, which applies also to certain groups treated as salaried employees, such as shop assistants, foremen, etc.

The following advantages are guaranteed to these workers when recalled to the colours in the exceptional circumstances mentioned above :

(1) The employee receives his full salary for the month during which he is required to rejoin the army. If he is paid weekly, he receives twice his weekly wage for the week during which he is called up.

(2) If the family of an employee who is not an officer is destitute, the employer must pay an allowance towards the family expenses. The amount of the allowance is equal to 50 per cent. of the employee's salary if he has one member of his family to support and rises by 10 per cent. for each additional member. The allowance may not, however, exceed the employee's total remuneration, or the limit of 100 pengö a month in the case of professional workers and 70 pengö a month in the case of wage earners treated as salaried employees.

(3) Any accommodation supplied by the firm must remain at the disposal of the employee or his family during the whole period of military service.

Agricultural Workers.

In accordance with the Orders of 1938 already mentioned, farm servants and farm bailiffs who are recalled to the colours retain their right to the following allowances in kind : accommodation and fuel, land for cultivation, and the amount of fodder stipulated in their contracts. This privilege is not granted to farm servants unless they have family responsibilities (a wife, children, or other persons living with them). When a farm servant is called up for compulsory service in peace-time, he retains his dwelling and the land granted him for cultivation under his contract.

A farm bailiff receives in addition : (1) half his cash salary, if he has no family responsibilities and is not an officer ; (2) half his cash salary and half his allowance in kind, if he has one person to maintain ; (3) three-quarters of his remuneration in cash and in kind, if he is responsible for the maintenance of several persons.

ITALY

There are separate regulations for salaried employees and for manual workers who are called to the colours in Italy.

The position of salaried employees is governed by the Legislative Decree of 13 November 1924 relating to contracts of employment, the Decree of 15 June 1936 relating to the legal and material situation of salaried employees recalled to the colours or enlisting voluntarily as a result of a military emergency, and the Royal Decree of 14 August 1936 giving effect to the preceding Decree.

Workers are protected by the collective agreements concluded between the various general confederations of employers and workers and, in the case of certain groups of workers, by special collective agreements.

The two sets of regulations differ greatly in scope, but they all prescribe the right to reinstatement and the payment of wages.

Right to Reinstatement

Salaried Employees.

The Legislative Decree of 13 November 1924 makes a distinction between employees called up for their period of military training and those recalled to the colours. In the first case, the contract of employment is deemed to be terminated unless it contains a stipulation to the contrary ; in the second case, the employer must keep the post open. In addition, any time spent on military service by employees recalled to the colours is reckoned towards their seniority for all purposes.

That, in brief, is the situation in normal times.

When, as in the present circumstances, workers are called up because of a military emergency—the existence of which must be determinated by the Ministry of Corporations—the position of salaried employees who are mobilised is governed by the provisions of the Legislative Decree of 15 June 1936, which automatically replace those of the Legislative Decree of 13 November 1924.

Scope. The Legislative Decree of 15 June 1936 applies not only to salaried employees as defined in the Decree of 1924 who are recalled to the colours, but also to those who voluntarily enlist or offer their services before their class is called up, and to those who join the colours without having gone through a period of military service. The Legislative Decree apparently does not apply to those called up for their period of military training.

Workers who, under collective agreements, receive a salary equal to or higher than that prescribed for salaried employees by the Decree of 1924 are treated as salaried employees.

Purpose of the regulations. If a person falling within the scope of the Decree is employed under a contract for an indefinite period, he is entitled to reinstatement and to seniority in respect of his period of military service. The Legislative Decree provides that the contract of employment shall be deemed to be suspended until the end of hostilities, and that all time spent with the colours shall be reckoned towards seniority for all purposes. It follows that an employee is entitled to return to the post which he actually held before being recalled to the colours, and also to all the advantages attaching to that post under laws, customs, or collective agreements. On his return, therefore, he automatically enjoys all the advantages of seniority as laid down in the Legislative Decree relating to contracts of employment, such as salary increments, increased sickness benefit, extended annual holidays with pay, a longer term of notice, an increase in the amount of the seniority allowance, etc.

If the worker is on probation, the fact of being recalled to the colours or of enlisting voluntarily suspends the contract of employment, but in this case the time spent with the colours is not taken into account for the purposes of seniority.

If the worker's contract is concluded for a specified period, he is entitled to have his post kept open for the whole of the unexpired period of his contract from the time of being mobilised until the contract expires.

Conditions for reinstatement. A worker who is recalled to the colours or who voluntarily enlists must, within thirty days after the cessation of his military service, offer to return to the service of his employer, failing which he will be considered as having resigned his position.

Substitutes. In order to replace persons who are called up or who have voluntarily enlisted, the employer may temporarily engage other workers, provided that he notifies them in writing at the time of their engagement that the employment is subject to the provisions of the present regulations.

If a mobilised worker or volunteer returns to work, one of the workers thus temporarily engaged may be dismissed with a fortnight's notice and without compensation. With this exception, the termination of the contract of employment of a worker engaged temporarily is governed in every case by the provisions of the

Legislative Decree of 13 November 1924, for salaried employees, or by the provisions of collective agreements, for other workers.

Workers.

Section XVIII of the Labour Charter of 21 April 1927 laid down the following principle: "A worker shall not be dismissed because he has been called up for service in the army or the militia". In reality, this principle involved a moral obligation, but no definite legal obligation. An effort was made indirectly to enforce this obligation by the Legislative Decree of 6 May 1928 relating to the registration and publication of collective agreements, Section 8 of which provided that the publication—and consequently the coming into force—of collective agreements was subject to their containing definite provisions to give effect to the principles of the Labour Charter, including the principle concerning persons called up for military service.

At the present time, all collective agreements in Italy do contain clauses on this subject. In order to ensure uniform treatment for all workers, the various general confederations of employers and workers have entered into collective agreements containing uniform stipulations applying to all employers and workers in any given branch of the economic system.

The position of workers in commerce is governed by the collective agreements of 15 March 1935 and 15 June 1936, that of workers in industry by the agreements of 25 June and 17 September 1935 and 27 March 1936, that of agricultural workers by an agreement of 17 September 1935, and that of settlers and share-farmers by an agreement of 16 June 1939.

Purpose of the regulations. All these agreements provide that when workers (as distinct from salaried employees) are recalled to the colours or enlist voluntarily their posts shall be kept open and their period of military service shall be reckoned for purposes of seniority with all the advantages which this implies under the different agreements.

This protection also covers the families of settlers (*coloni*) and share-farmers (*mezzadri*) whose remuneration consists mainly in the produce of the holding which they cultivate. The landlord may not terminate share-farming or settlement contracts during the period of military service except on grounds specifically mentioned in the contract as justifying its termination without notice.

If a landlord considers that he must give notice for other reasons to a family of settlers, some of whose members are called up for military service, the reasons must be examined by a joint committee composed of representatives of the organisations of agricultural employers and workers and presided over by a representative of the Federal Secretary of the National Fascist Party.

Conditions for reinstatement. Except in cases of *force majeure* which can be proved by the worker, the latter is obliged to resume his service in the undertaking in which he formerly worked within a

period ranging from ten to twenty days of his demobilisation, failing which he loses his post and the allowances payable for termination of contract.

Payment of Wages

Salaried Employees.

Salaried employees and commercial workers treated as such are entitled to the following allowances during the whole of their period of military service.

Employees who are not officers or non-commissioned officers receive: (*a*) one-third of their salary, if they are unmarried or widowers without children; (*b*) one-half their salary, if they are married without children or unmarried but responsible for the maintenance of parents, brothers, or sisters; (*c*) if they are married or widowers with children to maintain, two-thirds of their salary if the number of children does not exceed three, and otherwise three-quarters of their salary.

An employee who is an officer or non-commissioned officer receives the allowances mentioned above—due account being taken of his family situation—only if his civilian salary exceeds the pay of an officer or non-commissioned officer, including all supplements, family allowances, cost of living bonuses, etc.

In fixing the remuneration on which the allowances will be calculated, account must be taken not only of the actual salary but also of allowances for family responsibilities, cost of living bonuses, any regular fixed allowances, commission, bonuses on output, and shares in profits.

If the worker is remunerated wholly or partly on a commission basis, or by means of output bonuses or a share in profits, the value of this remuneration will be calculated on the basis of the average for the three preceding years, or of the average over the whole period of service if the worker has been in the same employment less than three years.

The employer, in accordance with the regulations laid down in the Decree of 14 August 1936, is solely responsible for the cost of paying the above allowances.

In order to secure an equitable distribution of the expenditure involved by these provisions among all the employers concerned, the Decree of 14 August 1936 provides that the employers' contributions, which are based on the number of employees in each undertaking and the amount of their salaries, must be paid into a central fund held by the Fascist National Institute of Social Welfare, which distributes the appropriate amounts to the beneficiaires.

A Ministerial Order of 15 August 1936 fixed the contribution at 1.20 lire for every 100 lire of wages paid to employees and assimilated workers.

Workers.

In the case of manual workers the regulations concerning the payment of wages differ for the main branches of economic activity.

Commerce. According to the agreements concluded between the employers' and workers' confederations for commerce, workers who are recalled to the colours or who enlist voluntarily are entitled to receive a grant equal to one month's wages in addition to their wages for the current pay period.

This grant is made also to categories of workers whose position is not governed by collective agreements and to those who are entitled only to the retention of their posts but not to wages if they are called up.

In the case of workers who are entitled to have their posts kept open and to receive their wages, the first month's wages must be paid in advance, at the date of mobilisation, along with the wage for the current pay period.

Workers who have not completed their period of military service and who voluntarily enlist will be covered by the regulations contained in the collective agreements for those who are called to the colours to perform their normal military service.

Workers belonging to categories not covered by collective agreements, who enlist voluntarily before their class is called up for exceptional military reasons, will be granted a single lump-sum payment of a fortnight's wages.

Apart from these general rules, special collective agreements lay down fixed rates of wages to be paid to certain large groups of workers, as follows :

(1) Workers in commercial undertakings dealing in food and drink, clothing, fabrics, glass and pottery, hides and skins, art products, iron, metals, machinery, watchmaking and jewellery, printing and paper, motorcycles, agricultural produce, cereals, seeds and fodder, mineral oil, lubricants, and motor fuel, electrical and hydraulic power, chemical products, wood, and furniture, are entitled to receive their full wage for the first month and one-half of their wage for the next two months.

(2) Workers in private establishments for the care and treatment of the sick are entitled to one-half of their wages for the first three months.

(3) Workers in wholesale or retail commercial establishments dealing in horticultural produce and citrus fruits fall into two groups : the non-manual subordinate staff, including messengers, watchmen, night watchmen, etc., receive their full wage for the first two months and one-half of their wage for the third month ; the others are entitled to their full wage for the first month and one-half of their wage for the next two months.

(4) Workers employed by agricultural syndicates are entitled to their full wages for 45 days and one-half of their wage for the following 45 days.

(5) Workers in wholesale and retail commercial establishments dealing in groceries and drysaltery receive their full wage for the first month and one-half of their wage for the following month.

Industry. According to the collective agreements concluded between the General Confederation of Employers in Commerce and Industry and the General Confederation of Workers in Commerce and Industry, industrial workers who are called to the colours or who voluntarily enlist are entitled to have their posts kept open and receive, in addition, a grant of six day's wages if they have less than one year's seniority, nine days' wages if they have from one to two years, 12 days' wages if from two to three years, and 14 days' wages for any longer period.

Workers employed in industrial undertakings represented by the Fascist Confederation of Commercial Workers are treated as industrial workers.

Agriculture. According to a collective agreement concluded on 17 September 1935 between the general confederations of employers and workers in agriculture, agricultural workers, irrespective of whether they have family responsibilities or not, are entitled to one week's wages in addition to any wages due at the moment when they are recalled to the colours.

In addition, the family of the mobilised man is entitled to the free use of the house and outbuildings during the validity of the contract, even when it has been necessary to find a substitute for the mobilised worker. If, however, on this account the employer is unable to keep the family on his land, he may provide them with free quarters outside the undertaking. The employer may not make any change during the current year in profit-sharing arrangements made with the mobilised man's family.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

The Economic Development of the Soviet Union under the Second and Third Five-Year Plans

by

A. ABRAMSON

International Labour Office

INTRODUCTION

The provisional results of the application of the second five-year plan (1933-1937) and the guiding principles for the third five-year plan (1938-1942) were announced at the Eighteenth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, held in Moscow from 10 to 21 March 1939.

The reports submitted to the Congress by Mr. Stalin, Secretary of the Communist Party, and by Mr. Molotov, President of the Council of People's Commissars, the speeches made by several other responsible leaders of the Party and the Government, and the resolution finally adopted, all contained numerous indications of the evolution of the Soviet Union from 1932 to 1938 and the direction to be followed by the economic and social life of the country in the immediate future.

Since the Congress closed, additional information has become available, and it is now possible to get some clear idea of recent developments in the Soviet Union.

The data indicate first of all vast changes in the structure of the Soviet population. It can be seen that the October Revolution not only abolished the former ruling classes but also profoundly changed the relationships between the other classes of society. The advance of industry, the development of urban centres, and the

abolition of small peasant holdings to make way for collective farms, were the outstanding factors in these changes.

The establishment of the collective farms which now dominate rural life in the Soviet Union was the most important experiment undertaken in the country since 1917. The purpose of the system is to harmonise the collective and the individual interests of the rural population while at the same time placing agriculture on a sound footing. Although collective farms already exist throughout the whole of the Union, the Soviet economic leaders have still many problems to solve before the masses of the peasants are fully adapted psychologically to the new agricultural system. It is not surprising therefore that the Eighteenth Congress devoted special attention to this subject.

Equally acute are the problems arising out of the application of the five-year plans in industry, which was placed on an entirely new basis by the Revolution. The Soviet Constitution of 1936 proclaimed that "The economic foundation of the U.S.S.R. is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the implements and means of production firmly established as a result of the liquidation of the capitalist system of economy, the abolition of private property in the implements and means of production and the abolition of exploitation of man by man". Starting from these principles the State took over the management of all Soviet undertakings, and this means that the application of the economic plans in industry is perhaps less difficult than in agriculture. There are, however, a variety of problems to be dealt with. The most important include the question of co-operation between various branches of industry, the best utilisation of the existing plant, possible means of increasing individual output, and rational geographical distribution of production.

The various bodies responsible for preparing and supervising the application of the plans have also had to devote considerable attention to transport, which is a matter of fundamental importance in a State covering such an immense area and at present developing rapidly in the direction of industrialisation.

In addition to these various aspects of the economic life of the country, the documents concerning the application of the second plan and the guiding principles for the third plan deal also with the social consequences of recent developments in the Soviet Union, and in particular the influence which these developments have had or may have on the standard of living of the population: wages, consumption, housing, social services, education, etc.

This enumeration of the questions dealt with in the documents referred to above is by no means exhaustive, and the brief analysis of the second and third plans in the following pages is in no way intended to be a complete survey of the subject, many aspects of which have necessarily had to be ignored. The most that can be said is that it may give the reader some idea of the problems that have been discussed most frequently in Soviet economic literature in recent months.

These topics will be taken in the following order: structure of the population; development of agriculture; development of industry; the transport situation; and data on the standard of living.[1]

Structure of the Population

The process of industrialisation during the first two five-year periods and the development of collectivism in agriculture have produced far-reaching changes in the structure of the Soviet population.

According to the census of 17 January 1939 [2], there were at that date 170,467,186 inhabitants in the territory of the Soviet Union, as compared with 147,027,915 at the general census of 17 December 1926. The preliminary data published by the State Planning Commission show that the main increase has been in the urban population.

PROPORTIONS OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION

Date of census	Urban population		Rural population	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
17 Jan. 1939	55,909,908	32.8	114,557,278	67.2
17 Dec. 1926	26,314,114	17.9	120,713,801	82.1

Practically all the towns in the Soviet Union have been affected by this change, although to varying extents. The population of Moscow, for example, rose from 2.0 to 4.1 million, that of Leningrad from 1.7 to 3.2 million, and that of Kiev from 514,000 to 846,000. There are some urban centres in which the population increased tenfold, and entirely new cities have been built up in the industrial districts of the Ural, the Far East, and the coast of the Arctic Ocean.

The changes in the social status of the inhabitants are even more striking. The transformations of the economic system have brought into existence a new society. This development is reflected in the following table:

[1] The figures concerning the application of the second plan and the guiding principles for the third five-year plan quoted in this article are taken from Mr. Stalin's report on the work of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, submitted to the Eighteenth Congress of the Party and dated 10 March 1939, and from Mr. Molotov's report on the third five-year plan of development of the national economic system of the Soviet Union, submitted on 15 March 1939, as well as from the resolution of the Eighteenth Congress on Mr. Molotov's report which was adopted on 20 March 1939. The data concerning the forecasts for the second five-year plan are taken from: *Vtoroy Pyatiletniy Plan Razvitiya Narodnovo Khozyaystva SSSR, 1933-1937* (Second Five-Year Plan for the Development of the National Economic System of the U.S.S.R., 1933-1937), Moscow, 1934. The sources of any other data used are indicated in footnotes.

[2] *Planovoe Khozyaystvo*, 1939, No. 6, pp. 11 foll.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE POPULATION IN 1928, 1934, AND 1937 [1]
(Percentages)

Class	1928	1934	1937
Workers and salaried employees	17.3	28.1	34.7
Workers and salaried employees (included in the above figures) in State farms and tractor and agricultural machine stations	(1.5)	(3.2)	(3.2)
Members of collective farms (including members of craft co-operative societies)	2.9	45.9	55.5
Peasants having individual holdings and craftsmen not members of co-operative societies	72.9	22.5	5.6
Capitalist elements	4.5	0.1	—
Kulaks (included in the above figures)	(3.7)	(0.09)	—
Other groups (students, soldiers, pensioners, etc.)	2.4	3.4	4.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

It will be seen that in 1937 the immense majority of the population (94.4 per cent.) consisted of workers, salaried employees, members of collective farms, and their families—that is to say, persons working in the socialised sector of the economic system or closely connected with it. Individual peasants and craftsmen not belonging to the co-operative organisations represented less than 6 per cent. of the total. The introduction in 1938 of further taxes on these categories of the rural population has probably further reduced this percentage.

The outstanding features of the structural changes that took place during the first two five-year periods included the creation of a large peasant class of a new type—the peasants working on collective farms—and a rapid increase in the number of wage earners, which rose from 22.9 million in 1932 to 26.9 million in 1937 and 27.8 in 1938.[2] It is estimated that at the end of the third plan the total number of wage earners will be about 5 million (21 per cent.) more than in 1937. In the future the ranks of the industrial workers will be filled mainly from among the peasants in the collective farms. This was made very clear by Mr. Stalin in his report, which appealed

[1] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938), Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, p. 16. The figures include members of the families of workers, salaried employees, peasants on collective farms, etc. Administrative officials and their families are included under salaried employees.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 20.

to the collective farms to supply one million and a half young workers to Soviet industry annually so as to secure its proper development.

The training of those young workers for industrial life and the technical education of young men and women workers in rural areas are problems of great importance for the Soviet Union. Another question that has to be considered is the most effective distribution of the supplementary contingents of workers.

The proposals to establish many new undertakings, lay down new lines of communication, and found new industrial centres, will necessarily involve large-scale transfers of labour. The growth of industry in the eastern part of the country makes it necessary to provide an adequate labour supply for that distant section of the Union. The Eighteenth Congress of the Party consequently devoted particular attention to the organisation of this transfer of labour to the Far East. Since that date an intensive campaign has been launched by the press, the wireless, etc., to induce the agricultural population of the European parts of the Soviet Union to emigrate to the East. Much has been done by the Government to facilitate these migration movements, the extent of which cannot yet be assessed with any accuracy.

Combined with these questions of changes in the social structure and the geographical distribution of the population there is always the central problem which has faced the Soviet Union ever since the beginning of the Revolution, namely that of the managing staff in the new society which is being built up. The masses of the peasants on the collective farms and the millions of industrial wage earners cannot carry out the economic plans and give effect to the principles of the Party and the Government unless they are trained, educated, and guided. This is the task of the new Soviet intelligentsia.

Mr. Molotov tried to assess the importance of this new social group which has sprung up from among the workers, the peasants, and the salaried employees, and comprises more particularly the executives of industrial and other undertakings and the managing staff of collective farms. In January 1937 the composition of this managing staff was as follows :

MANAGING STAFF OF THE SOVIET ECONOMIC SYSTEM IN JANUARY 1937

(1)	Heads of administrative establishments, educational institutions, and public health services	450,000
(2)	Directors and managers of State industrial undertakings, workshops, and services (including their substitutes)	350,000
(3)	Presidents of collective farms and their substitutes ; managers of the collective breeding centres of the collective farms	582,000
(4)	Managers of tractor and agricultural machine stations ; managers of State farms and managers of the breeding centres of the State farms	19,000
(5)	Heads of co-operative producing undertakings	40,000
(6)	Directors and managers of shops	250,000
(7)	Directors and managers of restaurants and other establishments for the supply of food to the public	60,000
	Total	1,751,000

This total of 1.7 million, however, represents only the higher and intermediate grades of managing staff. According to the Soviet view the intelligentsia is something considerably wider in its scope. It should include all engineers, technical workers, teachers, doctors, auxiliary medical staff, accountants, etc. The following table, which is also taken from Mr. Molotov's report, shows the composition of the Soviet intelligentsia for January 1937.

STRUCTURE OF THE SOVIET INTELLIGENTSIA IN JANUARY 1937
(Occupations)

(1)	Heads of undertakings, institutions, workshops, State farms, collective farms, etc.	1,751,000
(2)	Engineers and architects (not included as heads of undertakings or workshops)	250,000
(3)	Intermediate technical staff (technicians, supervisors, forestry engineers, stationmasters, etc.)	810,000
(4)	Agricultural engineers	80,000
(5)	Other technical workers in agriculture (surveyors, experts in agriculture, animal husbandry, etc.)	96,000
(6)	Scientific workers (university professors and staff of higher educational establishments)	80,000
(7)	School teachers	969,000
(8)	Persons engaged in cultural work (journalists, librarians, club managers, etc.)	297,000
(9)	Artists	159,000
(10)	Doctors	132,000
(11)	Intermediate medical staff (assistants, midwives, nurses)	382,000
(12)	Economists and statisticians	822,000
(13)	Accountants	1,617,000
(14)	Law administrators (judges, public prosecutors, magistrates, etc.)	46,000
(15)	Students in higher educational establishments	550,000
(16)	Other categories of intellectual workers (including the military intelligentsia)	1,550,000
	Total	9,591,000

These 9.6 million members of the intelligentsia, with their families, constitute between 13 and 14 per cent. of the total population.

According to Mr. Molotov one of the aims of the Soviet Union in its social policy is to raise the standard of development of the working class up to that of engineers and technical workers. It will obviously take several decades to bridge " the gap between manual labour and intellectual work " but Mr. Molotov considers that the Soviet Union is progressing towards that aim, and he adds that the third five-year plan will take the country a further step in that direction.

It is true that the figures quoted above refer to the period before the purges of 1937 and 1938, which must have made very extensive changes in the ranks of the new intelligentsia. At the Eighteenth Congress Mr. L. Kaganovitch said : " During the period 1937-1938 the personnel of the managing grade was largely replaced in the

heavy industries, and more particularly in the fuel and rail-transport industries; thousands of new men took the place of those who had been guilty of sabotage and had therefore been removed."[1] There is little doubt that this remark applies also to other branches of the economic system, and there is abundant evidence to show that the purges have meant, among other things, that a very large number of inexperienced young persons have been appointed to posts of considerable responsibility. It would seem that their ability to adapt themselves to the growing demands of the economic system will be one of the decisive factors in the success of the third five-year plan.

Development of Agriculture

The operation of the second five-year plan began right in the middle of revolutionary changes in the agrarian system, the social results of which were so far-reaching as to be comparable only to those of the events of October 1917. It was not until 1935, however, that the basic legal text was promulgated which organises rural life in Soviet Russia, namely the standard regulations for collective farms.

These regulations provide that the land and all the means of production formerly belonging to the peasants shall be held in common. They stipulate that the share of each person in the collective produce, a fraction of which must first be delivered to the State, is to be determined according to the quantity and quality of the work done. The managers of the collective farms are chosen by the members. Every member of the collective farm is permitted the personal ownership of his dwelling and a patch of land varying from one-quarter to one hectare, according to the district, which the peasant can use for his personal requirements. As a rule, tractors and other agricultural machines do not belong to the collective farms but to the machine and tractor stations (M.T.S.) which are the real organising institutions in Soviet agriculture. These stations are managed by the State and carry out, for remuneration, all the work requiring mechanical power on the land of the collective farms. A third typical feature of the Soviet agricultural system can be found in the State farms, which are intended to be models of fertility and output for the collective farms.

The organisation of agriculture on a collective basis has almost completely eliminated the individual small holding. The area under cereals in the collective farms increased from 75 million hectares in 1933 to 92 million in 1938, while during the same period the area cultivated by individual peasants decreased from 15.7 million to 600,000 hectares, becoming only 0.6 per cent. of the area under cultivation. In the case of industrial crops the part played by individual peasants is now nil, according to Mr. Stalin. The 242,400 collective farms now completely dominate Soviet agriculture. On

[1] *Pravda*, 17 March 1939.

1 July 1938 they comprised 18.8 million peasant holdings, or 93.5 per cent. of the total.

Before the Eighteenth Congress of the Communist Party met, the Soviet press gave publicity to suggestions that the country districts should be organised in real agricultural communities in which the members of the collective farms would give up their personal ownership of their dwellings and of the patches of land granted them by the regulations of 1935. In his final remarks to the Congress the President of the Council of People's Commissars rejected those suggestions and strongly emphasised the need for maintaining collective farms in their present form for the whole duration of the third plan.

The collective ownership of land, which became virtually complete during the second five-year plan, was accompanied by appreciable progress in the mechanisation of agriculture. The rudimentary implements and means of transport formerly used by the peasant have gradually been replaced by tractors, combines, lorries, steam engines, etc.

The number of tractors in the country rose from 210,900 (3,209,200 horse power) in 1933 to 483,500 (9,256,200 horse power) in 1938. The tractors belonging to the M.T.S. now plough about three-quarters of the land belonging to the collective farms.[1] The number of these tractors has increased much more rapidly than the number belonging to the State farms and subsidiary agricultural undertakings. The increase from 1933 to 1938 was 219.8 per cent. for the former and only 2.2 per cent. for the latter. The number of combines increased even more rapidly than the number of tractors during the application of the second plan, being 25,400 at the end of 1933 and 153,500 at the end of 1938.

It should also be mentioned that the number of tractor and machine stations rose from 2,900 in 1934 to 6,350 in 1938, and that the third plan provides for the establishment of 1,500 new stations.

The situation of the State agricultural holdings is different. In 1934 several State farms for the cultivation of cereals, some of them of huge proportions (200,000 to 250,000 hectares), were divided up. At the same time the number of State holdings was gradually reduced from 4,337 in 1932 to 3,992 in 1937 [2] and 3,961 in 1938. [3] During the last two years extensive areas have been taken away from the State farms and handed over to the neighbouring collective farms.

The results achieved by those radical changes in the agrarian system are shown in the following table.

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[1] *Bolshevik*, 1939, No. 7, pp. 56-57.

[2] GOSPLAN SSSR: *Itogi Vypolneniya Vtorogo Pyatiletnego Plana Razvitiya Narodnogo Khozyaystva Soyuza SSR* (Results of the Second Five-Year Plan for the Development of the National Economic System of the U.S.S.R.), Moscow, 1939, p. 95.

[3] *Pravda*, 13 Aug. 1939.

TOTAL OUTPUT OF CEREALS AND INDUSTRIAL CROPS IN THE SOVIET UNION

Crop	Million quintals						1938 as percentage of 1913
	1913	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	
Cereals	801.0	894.0	901.0	827.3	1,202.9	949.9	118.6
Cotton (raw)	7.4	11.8	17.2	23.9	25.8	26.9	363.5
Flax (fibre)	3.3	5.3	5.5	5.8	5.7	5.46	165.5
Sugar beet	109.0	113.6	162.1	168.3	218.6	166.8	153.0
Oil-bearing plants	21.5	36.9	42.7	42.3	51.1	46.6	216.7

It was thus mainly the output of industrial crops, and in particular cotton and oil-bearing plants, which increased most rapidly, while the development in the output of cereals was much less marked. In 1938 the summer drought in the Volga region and the surrounding territories seriously interfered with cereal crops. The harvest, however, was better than from 1934 to 1936, although lower than the 1937 figure, which was a record.[1] One of the important tasks of the future for the Soviet Union will be to find means of overcoming drought in the central and south-eastern districts. This question is dealt with in the third five-year plan, which proposes the erection of two hydro-electric stations near Kuybyshev (formerly Samara). Once these stations have been completed they will have a total power of 3.4 million kilowatts. The vast programme of development undertaken at Kuybyshev is expected to solve the problem of irrigation for the districts affected by drought.

The efforts made in the Soviet Union to render agricultural production less dependent on the elements, to introduce a scientific rotation of crops, and to prevent the loss of a fraction of the crops, are among the main tasks of the authorities responsible for the administration of agriculture. When they have been completed successfully it should be possible to achieve the aim of the third five-year plan, which is to reach at the end of the period an output of cereals of 8,000 million puds, or an average of 13 quintals per hectare, as compared with 9.1 quintals in 1933-1937. It should

[1] Referring to the development of agriculture during the first 10 months of 1939, the President of the Council of People's Commissars made the following statement in a speech on 6 November 1939 : " In spite of certain unfavourable climatic conditions we have been able during this year to achieve substantial progress in agriculture. The cereal crop was 6,500,000,000 puds, or 11 per cent. higher than that of the previous year. The production of raw cotton increased by 5 per cent., flax by 16 per cent., sugar beet by 26 per cent., and potatoes by 60 per cent. Similarly, it may be said that there was an improvement in every branch of stock raising. The quantities of cereals stored has also increased as compared with the previous year." (*Pravda*, 7 Nov. 1939).

be noted in this connection that in the section of his report to the Eighteenth Congress dealing with agriculture Mr. Stalin pointed out that the chief centre for the production of grain had moved from the Ukraine, which was formerly considered the granary of the country, towards the North and East. It is true that for the last two or three years the Ukraine has stocked only about 400 million puds of wheat annually, while the R.S.F.S.R. during the same period stocked from 1,100 to 1,200 million puds.

In addition to increasing the output of cereals, the third plan is intended to find at least a partial solution for the shortage of live-stock, which, as will be remembered, was decimated during the period of collectivisation. According to the latest figures [1] the number of horses and sheep at the present time is lower than before the Revolution. The Soviet Union has less than half the number of horses that it had in 1916 and only 84.6 per cent. of the number of sheep and goats. The number of cattle and pigs, however, is higher than in 1916. During the third five-year period it is expected that there will be a great increase in the number of animals : 35 per cent. for horses, 40 per cent. for cattle, 100 per cent. for pigs, and 110 per cent. for sheep and goats. According to the plan special attention will be paid to the collective stockraising farms which produce for the market.

Among the numerous agricultural questions that will have to be dealt with in the Soviet Union in the next few years there are several concerning the organisation of work on collective farms, and in particular the problem of striking a balance between the collective and the individual interests of the peasant masses working on those farms.

This point has been mentioned on several occasions in the Soviet press. It would appear that, from the point of view of the Soviet authorities, too much space has been devoted in many collective farms to the individual crops of the members. In this way the patches of land granted to members have often grown beyond the limits laid down in the regulations. Some of that land has been leased out and the number of head of cattle owned personally by members of the farms has exceeded the standard figure. The press also pointed out that members of collective farms sometimes devote most of their time to their personal holdings and remain members of the collective body merely as a matter of form, so as to enjoy the privileges granted by the State to those persons. The result of this state of affairs has sometimes been that the land owned personally by the peasant has become his chief source of income, and the collective farm is merely a screen intended, as *Pravda* said on 17 May 1939, " to conceal the personal accumulation of wealth at the expense of the conscientious members of the farm ". The same paper also points out that the retraining of the peasants on socialistic lines calls for continuous effort, and that a member of a collective farm " cannot be expected all at once to get rid of all the characteristics of his past life as an individual peasant ".

[1] *Planovoe Khozyaystvo*, 1939, No. 7, p. 156.

In order to combat these trends, the Central Committee of the Party and the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union issued an important Order on 27 May 1939 to protect the land belonging to collective farms against the attempts of the members to appropriate it.[1]

Development of Industry

Most of the data submitted to the Eighteenth Congress of the Party referred to industry. They deal with industrial production in general during the second and third five-year periods and, more particularly, with the movement in the main branches of industry.

Industrial Production in General.

A brief summary will first be given of information concerning the second plan, and this will be followed by an analysis of the guiding principles for the third plan.

Results of the second plan. According to the second plan, the value of the total industrial output was intended to increase from 43,300 million roubles in 1932 to 92,700 millions in 1937. In reality it reached 95,500 millions in 1937, thus exceeding the estimates by 3 per cent. The annual average increase in the value of industrial output, which had originally been fixed at 16.5 per cent., was actually 17.1 per cent.

The greatest success is stated to have been obtained in the heavy industries, where output rose by 140 per cent. Some important branches (coal, petroleum, and cast iron) did not entirely fulfil the tasks assigned to them, but nevertheless the total figure for 1937 (55,200 million roubles) was 22 per cent. above the figure laid down in the plan. On the other hand, the output of consumers' goods (40,300 millions in 1937) rose by 100 per cent., but was still 15 per cent. below the figure prescribed in the plan. According to the estimates for the period 1933-1937 the production of consumers' goods was intended to increase more rapidly than that of producers' goods, and should in 1937 have represented about 51 per cent. of the total industrial output, as against 46.7 per cent. in 1932. It proved impossible to carry out this principle. The programmes for industry had to be drastically changed in the course of the period. In particular, the development of industries for national defence had to be speeded up very much on account of the international situation. To some extent this measure affected the progress of the light industries. The result was that the ratio of consumers' goods to the total industrial output fell from 46.7 per cent. in 1932 to 42.2 per cent. in 1937.

The following table shows the growth of industrial production in the Soviet Union since the beginning of the five-year plans.

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, 17 July 1939, p. 124.

INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL OUTPUT IN THE SOVIET UNION [1]
(1929 = 100)

1929	100	1934	240.1
1930	130.7	1935	295.5
1931	161.3	1936	384.9
1932	184.7	1937	428.9
1933	199.9	1938	477.4

The curve of output thus rose steadily during the whole period covered by these figures. The increase is still more marked if one considers only the large undertakings, that is to say those employing 16 or more workers and using power-driven machinery, or those employing 30 or more workers without such machinery. The value of the output of the large undertakings was 90,166 million roubles in 1937 as compared with 38,500 millions in 1932, thus exceeding the estimates for the second plan (86,430 millions) by 4.3 per cent.[2], while the output of small undertakings lagged about 15 per cent. behind the programme for the last year of the second plan.

Programme of production and investment in the third plan. In spite of the rapid growth of Soviet industry, the Union is still economically backward when compared with the most highly developed capitalist countries. This point was emphasised both in the reports of Mr. Stalin and Mr. Molotov and in the final resolution adopted by the Eighteenth Congress. Taking as a basis the volume of industrial output per head of the population, it will be found that the Soviet Union is considerably behind as regards the production of electrical energy, cast iron, steel, coal, and cement, and also the manufacture of cotton and woollen fabrics, footwear, sugar, and paper. The industrial output of the United States per head of the population in 1937 was about 3.5 or 4 times as great as in the Soviet Union.[3] The third plan therefore lays down as one of the most important tasks to be undertaken that of catching up and outstripping the most advanced capitalist countries of Europe and the United States as regards output per head of the population. The authors of the plan admit that it will not be possible to achieve this aim within the limits of the third plan, but they believe that in time it will be possible. Taking as an example the average output of cast iron, it will be found that Soviet production, which was 14.5 million tons in 1937, would have to reach 25 million tons a year in order to exceed the level of Great Britain. Even in 1942, however, the output could not be more than 22 million tons. In order to reach the German figure the Soviet Union would have to produce at least 40 million tons a year, and in order to outstrip the United States

[1] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938). Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, p. 32. The figures refer to the value of the goods produced (at the 1926-1927 prices).

[2] *Pravda*, 11 March 1939.

[3] *Pravda*, 18 March 1939.

the annual output would have to rise to between 50 and 60 million tons. According to Mr. Stalin, therefore, " time—a lot of time—will be required before we can catch up with the leading capitalist countries in the economic field " ; he suggests that it will take at least ten or fifteen years, or another two or three five-year plans.

The third plan has been drawn up with that purpose in view. For industry in general an increase of 92 per cent. over the 1937 figure is aimed at. The value of output must reach 184,000 million roubles in 1942, including 114,500 millions for producers' goods (an increase of 107 per cent.) and 69,500 millions for consumers' goods (an increase of 72 per cent.). The annual average increase in industrial output is fixed at 14 per cent., being 15.7 per cent. for industries supplying producers' goods and 11.5 per cent. for those producing consumers' goods.[1] The plan thus lays chief emphasis on the manufacture of the means of production, which at the end of the third five-year period would represent 62.2 per cent. of the total industrial output. The amount to be invested in undertakings of this type will therefore be more than five times the amount to be invested in undertakings manufacturing consumers' goods.

The programme of industrial investment for the years 1938-1942 is much larger than that for the second plan. Industrial investments, which amounted to 58,600 million roubles during 1933-1937 (as against 69,500 millions in the original plan), must be increased during the third plan to 111,900 millions, of which 93,900 millions are intended for the manufacture of producers' goods and 18,000 millions for the manufacture of consumers' goods.

Every effort has been made by the authors of the plan to secure the greatest possible rationalisation in the programme of new building. They have endeavoured to bring industries closer to the sources of raw materials and to consuming areas, mainly in order to relieve congestion on the railways. The attempt is also being made to secure a more harmonious development of various parts of the country, more particularly by providing for the organisation, wherever feasible, of the extraction of fuel and the production of such articles as cement, chemical fertilisers, glass, the products of the light industries, foodstuffs, etc., sufficient for local requirements. In no case may new factories be established in the already overcrowded large centres such as Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Kharkov, Rostov, Gorki, and Sverdlovsk.

The displacement of the economic centre of gravity towards the East, which was already suggested in the second plan, will continue during the third five-year period. About 18 per cent. of the total investments will be used for the East and the Far East ; in the second plan the corresponding figure was only 12 per cent.[2] The plan makes proposals for extensive operations to develop a

[1] In a speech delivered in Moscow on 6 November 1939 (*Pravda*, 7 November), the President of the Council of People's Commissars stated that industrial output had increased by 12 per cent. in 1938 and by 14.4 per cent. during the first ten months of 1939.

[2] *Pravda*, 18 March 1939.

centre for the heavy metal industries in the East, and for the establishment of a new centre for the textile industry which would use the cotton from Central Asia. In the Far East the extraction of coal and the production of cement must be developed to a sufficient extent to cover local requirements. For this purpose, as was already mentioned, special attention will be devoted to the transfer of labour towards those districts.

One characteristic feature of the third plan is the cessation of the cult of the gigantic in new buildings. The new plan shows a preference for medium-sized or small undertakings, which can be built more quickly and begin work sooner. In order to illustrate this principle, Mr. Voznesenskiy, President of the State Planning Commission (Gosplan), pointed out[1] that in future electrical heating stations should have a power of not more than 25,000 kw. instead of 50,000 to 100,000 kw. as in the past; coal mines an output of 200,000 to 300,000 tons, or even less for local requirements, instead of 600,000 to 700,000 tons; motor factories a producing capacity of 30,000 to 50,000 cars annually instead of 100,000 to 200,000; cotton mills 45,000 to 50,000 spindles instead of 100,000 or over.

The completion of this programme will depend largely on the success achieved in increasing individual output, which must, according to the estimates, be raised by 65 per cent. in the course of the third plan. The increase in the output of industrial workers from 1933 to 1937 (82 per cent.) was considerably above the estimated figure (63 per cent.), but a comparison between the output of Soviet workers and those of the advanced capitalist countries is not particularly favourable to the former. According to the President of the Gosplan, the average output of a worker in the Soviet Union is only a half or two-fifths of that of an American worker. As was pointed out by Mr. Shvernik[2], Secretary of the Central Council of Trade Unions, the development of the Stakhanovist movement, the adoption by other workers of the methods used by the Stakhanovists, and the strengthening of labour discipline (which was made particularly strict by an Order of 28 December 1938), will play an important part in securing the very necessary increase of productivity among Soviet workers.[3]

The problem of reducing the cost of production is closely linked up with that of individual output, especially as the reduction of 26 per cent. (13,000 million roubles) in the cost of industrial production, which was laid down in the second plan, was not entirely secured.[4] For the period 1938-1942 the plan proposes a reduction in costs of 10 per cent., which would represent a saving of about 20,000 million roubles as compared with 1937. The factors which

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[1] *Pravda*, 18 March 1939.

[2] *Trud*, 11 May 1939.

[3] According to a statement made by Mr. Molotov on 6 November 1939 (*Pravda*, 7 November), the measures taken to tighten up industrial discipline and bring those responsible for the management of industry into closer touch with the undertakings helped to increase the output of industrial workers by 11 per cent. in 1938 and by 17 per cent. during the first ten months of 1939.

[4] *Bolshevik*, 1938, No. 2, p. 13.

are intended to contribute to this reduction in cost include a reduced consumption of raw materials, fuel, and electric power, the gradual elimination of losses in the course of production, a campaign against stoppages in production, and the development of standardisation.

There remains another question which is always acute in the Soviet Union—that of the quality of industrial output. Mr. Molotov's report emphasises the need for substantial progress in this direction, and the Soviet press is still continuing its campaign for an improvement in the quality of the goods supplied to consumers.

Development of the Main Branches of Industry.

The information concerning the manufacture of producers' goods and the manufacture of consumers' goods will be dealt with successively.

The following table[1] illustrates the development of certain branches of the heavy industries in the course of the second plan and shows the proposals for the third plan.

DEVELOPMENT OF CERTAIN BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY

Item	1932	1937	1938 (provisional data)[2]	1942 (plan)
Electrical energy (thousand million kw.-hours)	13.3	36.4	39.6	75
Coal (million tons)	64.3	127.9	132.9	230
Petroleum and gas (million tons)	22.2	30.4	32.2	54
Cast iron (million tons)	6.2	14.5	14.6	22
Steel (million tons)	5.9	17.7	18.0	27.5
Rolled steel (million tons)	4.3	13.0	13.3	21
Mechanical engineering and metal work (thousand million roubles at the 1926-27 prices)	9.4	27.5	33.6	62
Machine tools (thousands)	15.0	36.1	—	70
Motor cars (thousands)	23.9	200.0	214.4	400

The production of *electrical energy* increased by 171.8 per cent. under the second plan. This result was achieved in spite of considerable delay in the construction of new electrical power stations, which meant an excessive strain on certain existing stations. The total power of the stations rose by 73.9 per cent., but it is still some

[1] GOSPLAN SSSR : *op. cit.*, p. 77 ; *Planovoe Khozyaystvo*, 1939, No. 3, p. 9.

[2] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938), Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, pp. 40 and 42.

25 per cent. below the figure fixed for 1937.[1] In the third plan it is proposed that the disproportion between the rapid development of industrial output and the unduly slow growth of electrical power stations should be overcome. Arrangements are made for the development of a number of small and medium-sized power stations, quite apart from the vast central hydro-electric plant of Kuybyshev already mentioned.

Notwithstanding the steady increase in the extraction of *coal* the total output during the period of the second plan was 16.5 per cent. lower than the proposed figure. If the programme for 1938-1942 is to be carried out, which means increasing production by 90 per cent. above the 1937 level, the delays in the construction of new pits will have to be made good. It is hoped that the amount of coal produced during that period will be sufficient not merely to cover current requirements but also to permit the constitution of reserves. A particularly rapid increase in the extraction of coal is expected in the districts of the Urals, Central Asia, the Far East, and the Moscow area, so as to reduce the proportion of the total coming from the principal coalfield of the country, the Donetz coalfield, from 58.9 per cent. in 1938 to 48.7 per cent. in 1942. Special attention is to be paid to the mechanisation of production, since the transport and loading of the coal are still largely carried on by horses and by hand, although hewing is now mechanised to a proportion of 94.6 per cent., at least in the Donetz coalfield.[2] The authors of the third plan attach particular importance to the underground gasification of coal.

The extraction of *petroleum*, which increased rapidly during the first five-year period, has also fallen far short of expectations during the second period. The increase was only 37 per cent. of the 1932 figure, as against 110 per cent. laid down in the plan, and the output in 1937 was only about 65 per cent. of that prescribed for the last year of the second plan. These delays, occurring at a time when the demand for liquid fuel in the home market was steadily increasing, would seem to explain the steady reduction in Soviet exports of petroleum from 1932 onwards. In the course of the third plan it is proposed to increase output by 77 per cent. In particular, it is suggested that a " second Baku " should be established between the Volga and the Urals, thus reducing the relative importance of the Baku oilfields, which up to the present time have supplied some 75 per cent. of the total output.

The results obtained in the *iron and steel industry* are generally held to be more favourable than those achieved in the production of fuel. The output of steel was four per cent. above the estimates in the second plan, that of rolled metal was almost up to the figure laid down in the programme, and cast iron alone lagged 9.4 per cent. behind the estimates. Technical reconstruction in this branch of industry has made great progress under the second plan. In 1937 more than 90 per cent. of the output is stated to have been supplied

[1] *Pravda*, 18 March 1939.
[2] *Pravda*, 17 March 1939.

by new factories or factories reconstructed in recent years. The third plan proposes an increase of 52 per cent. in cast iron, 58 per cent. in steel, and 62 per cent. in rolled metal. As in the case of other industries, the proportion of output to be produced by the eastern parts of the country is expected to increase with special rapidity (constituting 35 per cent. of the total in 1942, as against 28 per cent. in 1937). In the East and in the Ural region 17 out of a total of 20 new blast furnaces will be erected, as well as 30 Martin furnaces out of 56 and 17 rolling mills out of 34.

The documents of the Eighteenth Congress also stress the particularly favourable results obtained in *mechanical engineering*, the output of which increased by 180 per cent. from 1932 to 1937, which is much higher than the average for industry as a whole (120 per cent.). It was therefore possible to reduce very considerably the imports of machinery and plant from abroad. The number of imported machines as a percentage of those manufactured in the country fell from 43 in 1928 to 0.94 in 1937-1938.[1] The building of locomotives, railway trucks, and hoisting appliances, however, was somewhat behind the estimates. This will have to be made good during the third plan, the authors of which expect an increase in the output of the mechanical engineering industry of 129 per cent. between 1937 and 1942.

Very little detailed information is available as to the development of the *chemical industry* during the second five-year period. The total value of the output (at 1926-1927 prices) is said to have been 5,940 million roubles in 1937, which is considerably in excess of the figure laid down in the plan (4,098 million). The corresponding figure for 1938 is stated to have been 6,809 million.[2] Mr. Molotov has declared that the third five-year period will be the " period of chemistry ". The plan provides for an increase in production to 2.4 times the 1937 figure, which is much in excess of the average required of industry as a whole.

The least favourable results would seem to have occurred in the *forestry industry*, which was able to carry out only about 65 or 67 per cent. of the tasks required of it. From 1932 to 1937 output increased by only 12 per cent. as regards the supply of timber and 38 per cent. in the case of sawmills. The year 1937 was particularly bad for this branch of the Soviet economic system, since output fell below the level for the two preceding years. The third plan aims at the following results for 1942 : deliveries of timber, 200 million cubic metres, as against 111.3 million in 1937 ; output of sawn timber, 45 million cubic metres, as against 33.8 million in 1937.[3] It also provides for a great extension of mechanisation in the production process, especially by the utilisation of gas generators and steam engines. The cutting of timber will be developed more particularly in the northern and north-western regions of the European

[1] *Pravda*, 16 and 18 March 1939.

[2] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938), Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, p. 67.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 70.

part of the Union, in the Ural area, and in the Far East. The application of this programme is expected to do away with the necessity for transporting timber from Siberia to the western parts of the Soviet Union.

This brief outline of the development of the principal industries for the manufacture of producers' goods would give an incomplete picture if some details were not added as to the output of the more important consumers' goods.

Light industry as a whole increased its output by 82 per cent., but it would not seem to have carried out the task required of it under the second plan.[1] This failure to reach the required standard must be attributed mainly to the *textile industry*, and in particular to the *cotton industry*. The increase in the output of the cotton industry from 1932 to 1937 was only 24.3 per cent., and in the latter year it supplied only 3,400 million metres of fabric, instead of the 5,100 million laid down in the plan. The same is true of the woollen industry, which produced 108.3[2] million metres, instead of 220 million. Under the first five-year plan the development of the cotton industry was hampered by a shortage of raw materials, but since then the Soviet Union has become an important producer of cotton, and the reason for the present delay must therefore be sought rather in the inadequacy of the spinning mills. The third plan is intended to overcome this difficulty. It proposes the construction of large new cotton mills in the Asiatic parts of the Union and the erection of smaller mills in the former producing areas so as to remove the present disproportion between spinning mills and weaving mills. In 1942 the output of cotton fabrics is expected to reach 4,900 million metres (an increase of 42 per cent.) and that of woollen fabrics 177 million metres (an increase of 67 per cent.). Among the other branches of light industry mention may be made of the leather footwear industry, the output of which has to be increased to 258 million pairs, as against 182.9 million in 1937 and 86.9 million in 1932.[3]

In contrast with light industry, the *foodstuffs industry* was able, as early as 1936, to reach the figure prescribed for the last year of the second plan. Great changes have taken place in this industry because of technical reconstruction, the establishment of branches previously non-existent, and the transformation of handicraft undertakings into large modern factories. The most remarkable progress was made in the meat and fish industries. The sugar industry also increased its output from 828,200 tons in 1932 to 2,421,000 tons in 1937. Among the future tasks laid down in the third plan there is a further increase in the output of sugar by 44 per cent. and an increase in the output of preserved foods by 106 per cent.

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[1] *Pravda*, 16 March 1939. According to the original plan the industries under the Commissariat for Light Industry were expected to increase their output by 149 per cent., but as a result of changes in the organisation of industry there have been alterations in the statistical bases, so that this figure is not directly comparable with the results obtained.

[2] GOSPLAN SSSR: *op. cit.*, p. 85.

[3] *Ibid.*

The manufacture of other articles in wide demand, such as furniture, domestic utensils, etc., is left mainly to *local industry* and *handicrafts*, which are expected to make use principally of the raw materials available in each district.

The Transport Situation

Transport problems were a very serious aspect of the development of the Soviet economic system during the first five-year plan and the early years of the second plan, and the need for improving the working of rail, river and road transport became particularly acute as the country developed along the path of industrialisation. As Mr. Molotov pointed out, the tremendous development of the whole national economic system of the Soviet Union and the extent to which distant regions participate in its economic life imply extensive new tasks for the transport system, and especially rail transport. He recalled that in 1937, for example, 90 per cent. of goods transport was by rail, 8 per cent. by inland waterways, and only 2 per cent. by motor lorry.

The opening up of new railway lines does not seem to have made very great progress during the second five-year period, since the length of the track under operation increased by only 3.8 per cent. (84,900 kilometres in 1937, as against 81,800 in 1932). From 1935 onward, however, there was an improvement in the organisation of rail traffic, so that in 1937 the quantity of goods transported by rail exceeded the original plan, being 354,800 million ton-kilometres, as against 169,300 in 1932. The average amount loaded daily also increased in recent years, being 51,200 trucks in 1933 and 88,000 in 1938. Individual output on the railways increased by 47.9 per cent., as against an estimate of 43 per cent. in the plan.

The Commissariat for Water Transport had been subjected to serious criticism. The quantity of goods transported by the river vessels under the control of that Commissariat increased only from 25,100 million ton-kilometres in 1932 to 33,100 million in 1937. Transport by sea increased from 19,400 million ton-kilometres in 1932 to 37,000 million in 1937. In this respect water transport has not achieved the tasks prescribed in the second plan, and this failure has had to be made good by placing an additional strain on the railways.[1]

Under the third five-year plan a marked improvement in goods and passenger transport is expected. The rolling stock is to be increased by 8,000 locomotives, 225,000 goods trucks, and 15,000 passenger carriages, and 300,000 vehicles are to be fitted with automatic coupling. The length of the track will be increased by 11,000 kilometres, double tracks being laid over 8,000 kilometres and 1,840 kilometres being electrified. It is expected that the proposals for the distribution of producing centres and the fuller utilisation of local resources will lead to the elimination of much unnecessary long-distance transport.

[1] Gosplan SSSR : *op. cit.*, pp. 34-35 and 99.

In order to relieve the railways it is proposed that transport by inland waterways should be organised in such a way as to play a more important part in the transport of such articles as wood, grain, coal, and petroleum. The authors of the plan consider it important to improve the maritime and river craft from the technical point of view and to undertake extensive reconstruction work and improve communications between distant centres. The plan also mentions the necessity for transforming the northern sea route by the end of the third five-year period into a regular maritime highway linking up with the Far East.

Side by side with these developments the plan proposes an extension of motor transport, the number of motor vehicles being increased from 570,000 to 1,700,000. During the period 1938-1942 it is proposed to construct and remake 210,000 kilometres of roads.

In his report[1] to the Eighteenth Congress of the Party the People's Commissar for Rail Transport stressed another aspect of the third plan, that of passenger transport. Mr. Kaganovitch outlined an extensive programme for the improvement of this class of transport and indicated the measures that would have to be taken to do away with the frequent lateness of trains. The development of the Stakhanovist movement (the number of Stakhanovists in the transport industry already exceeds 550,000), the increased employment of women, and better selection and training of managing staff, are among the factors which are expected to contribute to increased output and therefore to the achievement of the programme outlined above.

Data on the Standard of Living

The reports analysed contain a certain number of data on the standard of living of the population of the Soviet Union from 1933 to 1937 and the probable trend of social conditions during the period of the third five-year plan.

It is pointed out in the first place that there has been an increase in the national income from 45,500 million roubles in 1932 to 96,300 million in 1937 (at the 1926-27 prices), being a rise of 111.6 per cent. This increase is slightly less than the figure laid down in the second plan, which assessed the national income for 1937 at 100,200 million, or an increase of 120.2 per cent. According to the third plan the national income is expected to increase by 1942 to 1.8 times the 1937 level. This means that the increase will be less rapid than during the second five-year period, when the national income was more than doubled. In this connection it should be noted that in 1938, the first year of the third plan, the national income of the Soviet Union was estimated to be 105,000 million roubles.

In addition to data concerning the national income the documents mentioned contain some brief information on the trend of wages. They indicate that the wages fund rose from 32,737.7 million roubles in 1932 to 82,247 millions in 1937. During that

[1] *Izvestiya*, 18 March 1939.

period the number of wage earners increased by 18 per cent. and the national wages fund by 151 per cent., while the original plan proposed an increase of only 55 per cent. This upward trend continued in 1938, when the total amount of wages paid was 96,425 million roubles. For the period of the third plan the increase in the amount of wages has been fixed at 67 per cent.

There has also been a rise in the average nominal wages of workers and salaried employees, which are said to have increased by 113.3 per cent. (3,047 roubles a year on the average in 1937, as against 1,427 in 1932), while the second plan proposed an increase of only 23 per cent. In 1938 the annual average wage had risen to 3,467 roubles.[1] For the period 1938-1942, the increase in average wages has been estimated at 37 per cent. No data are published to show the evolution of real wages during the period under consideration. All that Mr. Molotov said on this point was that "the real wages of workers had doubled during the second five-year period (an increase of 101 per cent.)". The wages policy of the Soviet Union continues to be based on the principle of piece rates as an incentive to productivity, any increase in remuneration being dependent on an increase in output, which means a reduction in the ratio of wages costs to total costs for each unit of output.

Side by side with this rise in wages the documents submitted to the Eighteenth Congress mention a rise in the standard of living of the rural population. The cash income of the members of collective farms is said to have risen during the second five-year period from 4,600 to 14,200 million roubles, which means that it was more than trebled. The average amount of the cash income per peasant holding in the collective farms is said to have increased to 3.5 times the 1932 figure. The cash income distributed to the members of those farms in proportion to the number of "working days" performed by each is said to have reached 4.3 times the 1932 figure, more particularly in the districts producing industrial crops. According to Mr. Molotov the cash income of members of collective farms will increase to more than 1.7 times the 1937 level by the end of the third plan.

The increase in production and the rising trend of earnings have naturally influenced the volume of national consumption. The chief evidence of this can be found in the abolition of the system of cards and of all forms of restricted trade in 1935.

It would appear, however, that the plan for the period 1933-1937 concerning the extension of commercial operations and the lowering of prices was not completely carried out. According to that plan the turnover of State retail shops, co-operative societies, and establishments for the supply of food to the public, should have increased by 129.5 per cent. On the basis of the retail prices for 1932 it should have risen from 40,300 million roubles to 92,500 million. At the same time it was expected that retail prices would fall by about 35 per cent., as compared with the 1933 level.

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[1] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938), Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, p. 139.

In point of fact, according to the figures published by the Commissariat for Commerce, the turnover in internal trade, including undertakings for the supply of food to the public, developed as follows (in million roubles):

1933	49,800
1934	61,800
1935	80,400
1936	106,900
1937	125,200
1938 (provisional data)	138,600 [1]

As the figures quoted above were calculated on the basis of prices for the corresponding years, it is impossible to make any comparison between the estimates and the results actually obtained. From 1935 onwards there has been a more rapid increase in the circulation of goods in rural areas than in the towns. In 1937, for example, the turnover of urban retail trade had increased by 49 per cent. from 1935, while that of rural areas had increased by 71 per cent.[2]

In addition to the retail trade carried on by State organisations in the towns and by distributive co-operative societies in the country, there is the trade in the markets of the collective farms, which showed a turnover of 17,800 million roubles in 1937, as compared with 7,500 millions in 1932.

The estimates of the second plan as to the reduction of the retail prices of consumers' goods in wide demand would not seem to have been fulfilled. It should be noted, however, that according to Mr. Molotov this fact is counterbalanced by the rise in wages, which exceeded the estimates in the second plan, and by the increase in the cash income of the collective farms and their members. According to data for 10 large towns, during the same period the prices of the foodstuffs (meat, vegetables, eggs, and dairy produce) sold in the open market by the members of collective farms are said to have been reduced by from 50 to 60 per cent.[3]

In order to ensure that the growing demand for the more common articles of consumption will be satisfied better in future, the new plan proposes a great increase (63.5 per cent.) in the turnover of retail trade. This means that in 1942 the value of the goods sold would have to reach 206,000 million roubles; an increase of 38 per cent. in the number of retail shops is also proposed. It is expected that the quantity of industrial commodities destined for the market will increase more rapidly than the quantity of foodstuffs. The output of the former is expected to increase by 72.5 per cent. as compared with 1937, and that of the latter by only 53 per cent. The Soviet authorities are also endeavouring to secure a substantial improvement in the working of commercial organisations, which

[1] *Sotsialisticheskoe Stroitelstvo SSSR, 1933-1938* (Socialist Construction in the U.S.S.R., 1933-1938), Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, p. 110.

[2] *Voprosy Sovetskoy Torgovli*, 1938, No. 11-12, p. 23.

[3] *Problemy Ekonomiki*, 1938, No. 3, p. 93.

have been the subject of severe criticism during the last few years.

As a result of all these measures the authors of the third plan hope to increase national consumption by more than half.

The documents of the Eighteenth Congress contain no detailed information on one other important aspect of the life of the workers, that of house building. Mr. Molotov simply mentioned in his report that on this point the provisions of the second Five-Year Plan had not been realised. The competent authorities were required to build dwellings with an area of 61.4 million square metres between 1933 and 1937, but only 26.8 million square metres have been placed at the disposal of the workers and their families. In this respect the third plan is less exacting. In the towns and urban centres it is proposed that the State organisations and the municipal authorities should build only 35 million square metres, and it is expected that 10 million square metres will be provided by the efforts of undertakings and workers.

The plan provides for a marked increase in the credits for various social services. The cost of these services, including social insurance, education, public health, allowances to the mothers of large families, and other schemes to meet the material and cultural requirements of workers and salaried employees, will be increased from 30,800 million roubles in 1937 (8,300 million in 1932) to 53,000 million in 1942. In particular there will be an increase in State expenditure on hospital services, on the extension of various hygiene and prophylactic measures, obstetrical services, and children's hospitals, and on increased protection for workers and the organisation of spare time. In 1942 permanent crèches and kindergartens are expected to cater for 4.2 million children, as against 1.8 million in 1937.

The plan devotes considerable attention to the development of municipal services (water supplies for 50 towns, sewers for 45 towns, and tramways for 8 towns), the development of cultural establishments such as theatres, cinemas, libraries, etc., and also to general education. The authors of the plan propose that the system of seven years' school attendance should be made general throughout the rural areas and in the autonomous national Republics and that the largest possible number of children should be given an opportunity of attending school for ten years ; in this way the number of pupils in elementary and secondary schools will be increased from 8.6 to 12.4 million in the towns and industrial centres and from 20.8 to 27.7 million in rural districts.

In addition to general education attention is paid to technical training. During the period 1938-1942 it is hoped that the efforts of the authorities to increase the qualifications of workers will provide training for 8 million skilled workers in various branches of industry.

The desire to increase the number of skilled workers and to improve the technical ability of wage earners as a whole recurs as a leitmotif throughout all the documents laying down the general principles for the third five-year plan. The development of the policy of piece rates of wages and various other measures taken by the

Government, the Party, and the trade unions, are intended to serve the same purpose. In all the Soviet documents analysed above an increase in individual output is mentioned as the fundamental condition for an increase in production and a rise in the standard of living of the population.

This trend found expression more particularly in the Stakhanovist movement, which arose in the Donetz coalfield in 1935. The more recent forms of the movement (such as the training of instructors in Stakhanovist working methods, the exchange of experiences on the subject, the establishment of Stakhanovist schools, the increase in the number of machine tools operated by each worker, and the practice of following two or more trades) are intended to transform it into a vast movement of the masses and thus overcome the shortage of skilled workers from which the Soviet Union still suffers. According to the words of Lenin, which Mr. Molotov quoted in his report to the Eighteenth Congress of the Party, "the productivity of labour is ultimately the essential and decisive factor which will secure the success of the new social régime". This principle is still one of the pillars of the social policy of the Soviet Union. The high rates of wages paid to Stakhanovists, the privileges granted them under protective labour legislation and insurance legislation, the extension of the network of technical schools of all kinds, and the efforts made to induce women to engage in occupations hitherto reserved for men, are among the most characteristic manifestations of this policy.

* * *

A survey has been given in the preceding pages of the main results achieved under the second five-year plan in the Soviet Union. In 1928 the production of that country represented only 3.1 per cent. of the total world production, but it rose to 11.6 per cent. in 1935 and 13.7 per cent. in 1937. With the exception of a few products such as tin, nickel, and rubber, the Soviet Union is now practically independent of foreign countries.[1] Its trade with the outer world is, however, very limited.[2]

The third plan is intended to increase still further the economic power of the country. It proclaims the necessity for increasing the total output of the Soviet Union so that the production per head of the population may reach and outstrip that of the most advanced capitalist countries of Europe and that of the United States of America. The carrying out of this programme is considered to be the fundamental economic problem of the Soviet Union at the present stage of its development.

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[1] *SSSR i Kapitalisticheskie Strany* (The U.S.S.R. and the Capitalist Countries) Statistical Survey, Moscow, 1939, pp. 8 and 27.

[2] According to the statistical survey *Vneshnaya Torgovlya SSSR za 20 Let, 1918-1937 gg.* (The Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R. over 20 years, 1918-1937), Moscow, 1939, pp. 15 and 21, the share of the U.S.S.R. in the turnover of world trade was only 1.1 per cent. in 1937, as compared with 1.8 per cent. in 1933. The value of its exports in 1936 was only 0.8 per cent. of the total value of the gross production of the country.

The authors of the third plan, however, do not underestimate the difficulties of this task. They realise that if the desired aim is to be achieved the Soviet Union must, as is pointed out in the resolution adopted by the Eighteenth Congress of the Party, develop to a much greater extent its technical equipment, expand the heavy industries, and particularly mechanical engineering, to the maximum, steadily improve the organisation and technique of production, increase the number, and still more the quality, of its managing and supervising staffs, and above all continue the campaign for increased individual output in every branch of the national economic system.

STATISTICS

Wages

According to the plan recently adopted for the publication in the *Review* of the periodical statistics on labour conditions in different countries, statistics of the general level of wages are given in this issue.

A number of new series have now been calculated by the I.L.O. from the national data in order to obtain indexes more internationally comparable, and the table is now subdivided into three sections in order to group together the most comparable data, namely :

(1) Hourly rates or earnings ;

(2) Rates per normal week ;

(3) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings.

For more information on the scope and method of these statistics, see the January 1940 issue of the *Review :* Statistics, Explanatory Notes, pp. 88-98.

The cost-of-living statistics which have been used for calculating the indexes of real wages were published in the January issue of the *Review* and will appear again in the April issue. Statistics of employment, unemployment, and hours of work, will appear in the March issue.

Explanation of Signs Used in the Tables

The sign * signifies : " figures do not exist ".

The sign — signifies : " figures not yet received ".

The sign † signifies : " provisional figures ".

The sign —— between two figures of a series signifies that the former series has been replaced by another, or revised.

The sign ° signifies : " economic groups relating to men only ".

The sign ʳ signifies : " figure revised since the previous issue ".

The sign • signifies : " economic group represented by a few branches only ".

Figures in *thick-faced* type : indexes (100) of the base year (in all tables of index numbers).

Figures in *italics :* index numbers with a year later than 1929 as base.

Figures in *brackets :* series subject to certain reservations (see the January issue of the *Review* : Statistics, Explanatory Notes).

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	Germany					Australia			Belgium		
	Mines[a], industries, transport[a]					Mines[a], industries transport[a], etc.			Mines, industries, transport		
	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W. unsk.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.[2]	M. W. sk.	M. W. unsk.	M. W.
	Rates				Earnings	Rates			Earnings		
Money wages											
	Rpf.	Rpf.	Rpf.	Rpf.[1]	Rpf.[1]	s. d.	s. d.		*	*	*
1929	101.1	79.4	52.7	85.3	96.8	2 3	1 2½	*	*	*	*
1930	102.8	80.7	53.6	86.8	94.0	2 2½	1 2½	*	*	*	*
1931	97.4	76.6	51.0	82.3	86.9	2 0	1 1	*	*	*	*
1932	81.6	64.4	43.9	69.7	73.0	1 10¾	1 0¼	*	*	*	*
1933	78.5	62.3	43.4	67.6	70.7	1 10	0 11¾	*	*	*	*
1934	78.3	62.2	43.3	67.5	72.5	1 10	0 11¾	*	*	*	*
1935	78.3	62.2	43.4	67.5	73.6	1 10½	1 0	*	*	*	*
1936	78.3	62.2	43.4	67.5	74.8	1 11	1 0¼	*	*	*	*
1937	78.5	62.3	43.4	67.6	76.4	2 0	1 1				
1938	78.8	62.5	43.7	67.9	78.9	2 1½	1 1½				
1938 : Sept.	79.0	62.6	44.0	68.0	79.7	2 1¾	1 1¾	*	*	*	*
Dec.	79.0	62.6	44.0	68.0	80.5	2 3¾	1 1	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	79.0	—	—	68.1	—	2 1¾	1 2	*	*	*	*
June	—	—	—	—	—	2 2	1 2¼	*	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	102	102	102	102	97	98	99	98	106	107	108
1931	96	96	97	96	90	89	90	89	99	100	101
1932	81	81	83	82	75	84	84	84	90	91	92
1933	78	78	82	79	73	81	81	81	88	88	90
1934	77	78	82	79	75	82	82	82	84	84	86
1935	77	78	82	79	76	83	83	83	81	82	82
1936	77	78	82	79	77	85	85	85	87	89	88
1937	78	78	82	79	79	89	90	89	99	102	99
1938	78	79	83	80	82	96	93	95	104	106	105
1938 : Sept.	78	79	83	80	82	94	95	94	103	107	105
Dec.	78	79	83	80	83	103	90	102	105	107	106
1939 : March	78	79	—	80	—	95	97	95	105	107	106
June	—	—	—	—	—	96	99	96	105	107	106
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	104†	107†	106†
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	106	106	106	106	101	103	105	103	102	103	104
1931	109	109	110	109	102	105	106	105	106	108	109
1932	103	104	106	104	96	104	104	104	108	108	111
1933	101	103	108	104	95	104	104	104	106	106	109
1934	99	100	105	101	95	103	103	103	106	106	108
1935	97	98	103	99	95	102	102	102	101	102	103
1936	96	97	102	98	96	103	103	103	103	104	104
1937	96	97	101	98	97	105	106	105	108	111	108
1938	95	96	102	97	100	110	107	110	111	113	112
1938 : Sept.	96	97	103	98	101	107	108	107	110	114	112
Dec.	96	97	103	98	102	117	102	116	111	112	112
1939 : March	95	97	—	97	—	107	108	107	113	116	114
June	—	—	—	—	—	108	110	108	115	117	116
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	114†	117†	116†
Persons covered	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O., based on money wages published for 1938 to which the index numbers were applied.

[2] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : weighted averages of the rates for men and women.

Germany. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Australia. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : last day of the month.

Belgium. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

(*a*) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	Bulgaria			Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark			
	Industries			M., ind., tr.	Industries	Industries, transport *, etc.			
	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.
	Earnings			Rates	Rates	Earnings			
Money wages									
	Leva	Leva	Leva		Sh. $	Öre	Öre	Öre	Öre
1929	10.01	5.98	7.81	*	*	153	124	83	128
1930	9.76	6.16	7.33	*	0.059	156	126	84	131
1931	9.25	5.58	7.12	*	0.057	155	126	84	131
1932	7.75	4.90	6.20	*	0.057	153	127	85	131
1933	7.76	4.69	6.53	*	0.058	153	127	85	131
1934	7.29	4.59	6.09	*	0.056	154	129	86	132
1935	7.04	5.13	6.11	*	0.053	155	129	87	133
1936	7.09	5.22	6.03	*	0.055	156	130	87	132
1937	7.78	5.88	6.61	*	0.050	158	133	88	135
1938	8.15	6.29	6.99	*	0.051	166	140	94	142
1938 : Sept.	8.26	6.52	7.16	*	*	168	143	95	144
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	171	145	95	146
1939 : March	8.32	5.99	7.55	*	*	168	143	95	144
June	*	*	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100
1930	98	103	94	101	100	102	102	101	102
1931	92	93	91	96	*97*	101	102	101	102
1932	77	82	79	91	*97*	100	102	102	102
1933	78	78	84	86	*98*	100	103	102	102
1934	73	77	78	87	*95*	100	104	103	103
1935	70	86	78	89	*90*	101	104	105	104
1936	71	87	77	91	*93*	102	105	105	103
1937	78	98	85	98	*85*	103	107	106	105
1938	81	105	90	102	*86*	109	113	113	111
1938 : Sept.	83	109	92	*	*	110	115	114	113
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	112	117	114	114
1939 : March	83	100	97	*	*	110	115	114	113
June	*	*	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100
1930	107	113	103	101	100	107	106	106	107
1931	116	117	114	108	*93*	113	114	113	114
1932	105	112	108	111	*99*	112	114	114	114
1933	114	115	123	111	*112*	109	112	111	111
1934	114	121	122	111	*109*	105	109	108	107
1935	118	144	131	113	*103*	103	106	106	105
1936	124	153	135	113	*100*	102	105	104	103
1937	134	169	146	118	*78*	99	104	102	102
1938	135	175	149	121	*70*	102	107	107	105
1938 : Sept.	136	179	151	*	*	104	109	109	107
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	106	111	108	108
1939 : March	136	164	159	*	*	104	109	108	106
June	*	*	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	—
Persons covered	—	—	—	*	60,000	51,145	58,762	34,375	144,282

Bulgaria. Annual figures : up to 1933, averages of the figures for June and December ; from 1934 onwards, averages of the figures for January and July ; monthly figures : January and July, averages.

Canada. Annual figures : averages.

China. Annual figures : September of each year.

Denmark. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	Estonia			United States			
	Industries, etc.			B. L. S. Series	N.I.C.B. Series		
				Industries	Industries		
	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.
	Earnings			Earnings	Earnings		
Money wages							
	Sents.	Sents.	Sents.	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
1929	37.9	23.0	32.1	*	62.5	39.8	59.0
1930	38.7	23.0	32.5	*	62.2	39.5	58.9
1931	37.0	22.9	31.9	*	59.7	37.1	56.4
1932	34.5	22.1	29.9	45.8	52.6	32.5	49.8
1933	33.2	22.0	29.2	45.5	51.8	34.0	49.1
1934	33.0	21.9	29.0	54.1	60.4	42.5	58.1
1935	34.4	22.4	29.9	55.9	62.4	43.4	60.0
1936	36.3	23.4	31.6	56.4	64.4	43.0	61.6
1937	39.4	25.0	34.4	63.4	72.7	46.8	69.3
1938	42.4	26.5	37.1	63.9	74.8	47.7	71.4
1938 : Sept.	43.6	26.7	37.6	62.6	75.5	47.7	71.4
Dec.	44.7	28.3	39.1	64.2	75.9	47.3	71.3
1939 : March	42.7	27.2	36.9	64.5	76.0	47.3	71.5
June	45.6	28.1	39.9	64.2	76.7	47.2	72.1
Sept.	—	—	—	64.3	76.7	47.6	72.2
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)							
1929	100	100	100	* [1]	100	100	100
1930	102	100	101	*	100	99	100
1931	98	100	99	*	96	93	96
1932	91	96	93	100	84	82	84
1933	88	96	91	*98*	83	85	83
1934	87	95	90	*116*	97	107	98
1935	91	97	93	*120*	100	109	102
1936	96	102	98	*121*	103	108	104
1937	104	109	107	*136*	116	118	117
1938	112	115	116	*136*†	120	120	121
1938 : Sept.	114	116	117	*133*†	121	120	121
Dec.	118	123	122	*137*†	121	119	121
1939 : March	113	118	115	*137*†	122	119	121
June	120	122	124	—	123	119	122
Sept.	—	—	—	—	123	120	122
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)							
1929	100	100	100	*	100	100	100
1930	(115)	(112)	(114)	*	103	103	103
1931	(114)	(116)	(116)	*	110	107	110
1932	(113)	(120)	(116)	100	108	105	108
1933	(116)	(127)	(121)	*103*	111	114	111
1934	(117)	(128)	(121)	*118*	122	135	124
1935	(120)	(129)	(123)	*119*	121	132	123
1936	(114)	(121)	(117)	*118*	122	128	123
1937	(117)	(122)	(120)	*129*	132	133	133
1938	(119)	(123)	(123)	*131*†	139	139	140
1938 : Sept.	(121)	(124)	(125)	*129*†	141	140	141
Dec.	(126)	(131)	(130)	*132*†	142	139	141
1939 : March	(119)	(125)	(121)	*134*†	143	140	143
June	(127)	(129)	(132)	—	145	140	144
Sept.	—	—	—	—	143	139	143
Persons covered	31,793	16,480	48,273	3,936,000	*	*	*

[1] The index numbers of money wages have been calculated on the basis of the percentage change of wages in identical undertakings from month to month, and not on the money wages given above. See note on method in the *Review* for August 1935, pp. 259-260, or the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics*, 1935-36.

Estonia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

United States. Bureau of Labor Statistics series (B.L.S.) : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : a week nearest to the 15th of the month. National Industrial Conference Board Series (N.I.C.B.) : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : first week of the month.

(*a*) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	France					Great Britain	Hungary	Italy	Japan[2]
	Metals (Paris)	Industries, etc.			Metals and industries	Agr., M., Ind., Transp., local auth.	Industries	Industries, etc.	Industries
	M. W.	Paris M. chiefly skilled	Other towns M. chiefly sk.	Other towns W. Chiefly sk.	M. W.[1] chiefly sk.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.
	Rates					Rates	Earnings	Earnings	Earnings
Money wages									
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		Pengö	Lire	
1929	5.45	6.10	3.83	2.26	*	*	0.57	2.09	*
1930	5.79	6.64	4.08	2.42	*	*	0.57	2.07	*
1931	5.74	6.61	4.08	2.42	*	*	0.54	1.95	*
1932	5.47	6.34	3.99	2.35	*	*	0.50	1.91	*
1933	5.57	6.34	3.89	2.26	*	*	0.48	1.86	*
1934	5.54	6.34	3.89	2.28	*	*	0.45	1.80	*
1935	5.49	6.23	3.80	2.26	*	*	0.44	1.77	*
1936	6.33	7.06	4.42	2.62	*	*	0.45	1.88	*
1937	9.41	10.06	5.60	3.08	*	*	0.46	2.11	*
1938	10.45	10.50	6.19	3.42	*	*	0.49	2.26	*
1938 : Sept.	10.51	*	*	*	*	*	*	2.26	*
Dec.	10.61	*	*	*	*	*	*	2.37	*
1939 : March	10.85	*	*	*	*	*	*	2.30	*
June	11.03	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*
Sept.	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	106	109	107	107	107	99	100	99	*
1931	105	108	107	107	107	—	95	93	*
1932	100	104	104	104	104	96	88	91	87
1933	102	104	102	100	102	—	84	89	85
1934	102	104	102	101	102	96	79	86	88
1935	101	102	99	100	100	97	77	85	88
1936	116	116	115	116	115	100	79	90	88
1937	173	165	146	136	150	105	81	101	92
1938	192	172	162	151	165	106	86	108	100
1938 : Sept.	193	*	*	*	*	*	*	108	101
Dec.	195	*	*	*	*	*	*	113	109
1939 : March	199	*	*	*	*	*	*	110	103
June	202	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	94
Sept.	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	*	*	*	*	*	100	100	100	*
1930	100	100	100	100	100	103	(110)	102	*
1931	*103*	*103*	*103*	*103*	*103*	—	(111)	107	*
1932	*103*	*104*	*108*	*107*	*107*	109	(105)	110	100
1933	*107*	*106*	*109*	*107*	*109*	—	(109)	112	*96*
1934	*110*	*109*	*114*	*113*	*114*	111	(99)	114	*96*
1935	*116*	*115*	*119*	*119*	*120*	111	(99)	111	*93*
1936	*125*	*122*	*126*	*126*	*126*	111	(96)	109	*91*
1937	*154*	*144*	*134*	*124*	*138*	111	(92)	111	*91*
1938	*150*	*132*	*130*	*121*	*132*	111	(98)	110	*92*
1938 : Sept.	*153*	*	*	*	*	*	*	111	*91*
Dec.	*147*	*	*	*	*	*	*	115	*97*
1939 : March	*146*	*	*	*	*	*	*	111	*84*
June	*148*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*75*
Sept.	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	—
Persons covered	*	*	*	*	*	*	275,000	1,526,636	1,563,601

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : weighted averages of the rates of the four preceding series.

[2] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : Daily earnings divided by hours actually worked per day. Up to 1938, Statistics of the Bank of Japan ; from 1939, statistics of the Imperial Cabinet in which the statistics of the Bank of Japan have been incorporated.

France. Metals : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Industries : annual figures : October of each year.

Great Britain (including Northern Ireland). Annual figures : averages.

Hungary. Annual figures : averages.

Italy. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Japan. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

(*a*) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	Latvia (Riga)				Lithuania				New Zealand		
	Industries, etc.				Industries				Mines[2], industries, transp.[2], com.		
	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W. unsk.	M. W.	M. sk.[1]	W. unsk.[1]	W.[1]	M. W.[2]	M.	W.[2]	M. W.[2]
	Earnings				Rates				Rates		
Money wages											
	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Litas	Litas	Litas				
1929	81	57	33	51	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	84	59	33	53	1.45	0.90	0.56	*	*	*	*
1931	82	57	33	53	1.44	0.86	0.54	*	*	*	*
1932	72	50	31	46	1.30	0.81	0.52	*	*	*	*
1933	65	47	30	43	1.14	0.69	0.47	*	*	*	*
1934	63	47	30	43	1.07	0.63	0.44	*	*	*	*
1935	64	49	30	43	1.04	0.64	0.44	*	*	*	*
1936	65	49	30	44	1.03	0.63	0.43	*	*	*	*
1937	68	52	32	46	1.09	0.68	0.49	*	*	*	*
1938	73	55	35	50	1.14	0.68	0.49	*	*	*	*
1938 : Sept.	74	55	35	51	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	75	56	36	51	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	75	55	36	51	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	78	58	36	53	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	76	57	35	52	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	*	*	*	*	100	100	100
1930	104	104	100	104	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1931	101	100	100	104	*100*	*96*	*96*	*96*	94	94	94
1932	89	88	94	90	*90*	*90*	*92*	*89*	89	90	89
1933	80	82	91	84	*79*	*77*	*83*	*80*	87	88	87
1934	78	82	91	84	*74*	*69*	*78*	*73*	87	88	87
1935	79	86	91	84	*72*	*72*	*79*	*73*	89	89	89
1936	80	85	93	86	*71*	*70*	*77*	*72*	99	99	99
1937	84	90	97	90	*75*	*76*	*88*	*78*	113	112	113
1938	90	96	106	98	*78*	*76*	*87*	*79*	—	—	—
1938 : Sept.	91	96	106	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	93	98	109	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	93	96	109	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	96	102	109	104	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	94	100	106	102	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)											
1929	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	100	100	100
1930	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	102	102	102
1931	*107*	*106*	*111*	*110*	*107*	*103*	*102*	*103*	104	105	104
1932	*108*	*107*	*118*	*110*	*113*	*114*	*117*	*113*	107	107	107
1933	*102*	*105*	*120*	*107*	*115*	*113*	*122*	*117*	110	111	110
1934	*104*	*111*	*126*	*113*	*116*	*109*	*122*	*114*	109	109	109
1935	*104*	*114*	*125*	*111*	*128*	*128*	*141*	*131*	107	107	107
1936	*106*	*113*	*127*	*114*	*125*	*123*	*135*	*126*	115	115	115
1937	*102*	*111*	*123*	*110*	*120*	*121*	*140*	*125*	123	122	123
1938	*100*	*107*	*122*	*108*	*123*	*118*	*136*	*123*	—	—	—
1938 : Sept.	*101*	*107*	*122*	*111*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*104*	*110*	*127*	*112*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	*104*	*108*	*127*	*112*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*98*	*103*	*115*	*105*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*99*	*106*	*117*	*108*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered	44,716				*	*	*	*	*	*	*

[1] Money wages calculated by the I.L.O. : Daily rates of wages divided by normal hours per day.
[2] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : Weighted averages of the rates for men and women.
[3] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : Index numbers of weekly rates of wages divided by index numbers of normal hours per week.

Latvia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.
Lithuania. Annual figures : up to 1933, June of each year ; from 1934 onwards, July of each year.
New Zealand. Annual figures : averages.

(*a*) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	Palestine	Netherlands	Poland	Sweden			Switzerland				Czecho-Slovakia (Prague)
	Industries	M., industries	M., ind.	Mines[2], ind., transp., com.			Industries, some transport, com., etc.				Industries
	M. W.	M.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. sk. semi-sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.[1]	M. W.
	Rates	Earnings	Earnings	Earnings			Earnings				Rates
Money wages											
			Zl.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		Kč.
1929	*	*	1.01	1.25	0.74	1.11	1.48	1.14	0.77	*	4.37
1930	*	*	1.00	1.29	0.75	1.14	1.49	1.16	0.76	*	4.47
1931	*	*	0.93	1.29	0.75	1.14	1.51	1.16	0.78	*	4.49
1932	*	*	0.86	1.27	0.74	1.12	1.45	1.11	0.74	*	4.49
1933	*	*	0.78	1.22	0.73	1.08	1.43	1.09	0.72	*	4.47
1934	*	*	0.74	1.22	0.73	1.08	1.39	1.07	0.71	*	4.37
1935	*	*	0.72	1.24	0.74	1.10	1.36	1.05	0.70	*	4.34
1936	*	*	0.71	1.25	0.75	1.11	1.33	1.03	0.69	*	4.33
1937	*	*	0.74	1.29	0.77	1.15	1.32	1.05	0.69	*	4.22
1938	*	*	0.78	1.37	0.80	1.22	1.37	1.06	0.72	*	4.32
1938 : Sept.	*	*	0.78	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.32
Dec.	*	*	0.80	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.32
1939 : March	*	*	0.79	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.32
June	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.40
Sept.	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	105	102	99	103	101	103	101	102	99	101	102
1931	101	100	92	103	101	103	102	102	101	102	103
1932	101	93	85	102	100	101	98	97	96	98	103
1933	112	89	77	98	99	98	97	96	94	96	102
1934	137	86	73	98	99	98	94	94	92	93	100
1935	133	83	71	99	100	99	92	92	91	92	99
1936	128	81	70	100	101	100	90	90	90	90	99
1937	124	82	73	103	104	103	89	92	90	90	97
1938	120	86	77	110	108	109	93	93	94	93	99
1938 : Sept.	120	*	77	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	99
Dec.	*	86	79	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	99
1939 : March	116	*	87	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	99
June	*	86	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	101
Sept.	—	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)											
1929	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	*	(106)	(108)	106	104	106	103	104	101	103	105
1931	*	(111)	(112)	110	108	109	109	109	109	109	110
1932	*	(111)	(114)	110	108	110	114	114	112	114	112
1933	*	(107)	(115)	108	109	108	119	117	115	118	113
1934	*	(104)	(118)	107	108	107	117	117	115	116	112
1935	*	(103)	(119)	107	108	107	116	116	114	115	108
1936	*	(103)	(122)	107	108	107	111	112	111	112	106
1937	*	(101)	(119)	108	109	108	105	108	106	106	102
1938	*	(104)	(127)	112†	111†	112†	109	109	110	109	100
1938 : Sept.	*	*	(128)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	99
Dec.	*	(104)	(131)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	97
1939 : March	*	*	(130)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	95
June	*	(105)	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	93
Sept.	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Persons covered	*	—	813,843	362,229	69,671	466,399	24,529	21,656	5,877	52,062	*

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : Weighted averages of the earnings of men and women.

Palestine. (Jewish labour.) Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : end of the month in question. The original indexes relate to rates of wages per 8 hours' day.

Netherlands. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the half-year ending with the month in question.

Poland. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Sweden. Annual figures : averages.

Switzerland. Annual figures : averages.

Czecho-Slovakia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

(*b*) Rates per normal week

Date	Australia			Great Britain		New Zealand			Union of South Africa
	Mines[a], industries, transport[a], etc.			M. of L. series	L. & C.E.S. series	Agr.[a], Mines[a], ind., transp.[a], com.			M., ind., tr., com.
				Agr., mines, ind., transp., local auth.					
	M.	W.	M. W.[1]	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.[1]	M.
Money wages									
	s. d.	s. d.							
1929	102 2¾	53 11¾	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	100 10	53 11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1931	91 10½	48 10¾	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1932	86 1¾	45 4¾	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1933	83 1½	43 9	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934	83 7¼	44 3	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1935	84 8¼	44 11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1936	86 1½	45 9½	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1937	89 9½	48 0	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938	94 8¾	50 6¾	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : Sept.	95 3	50 7	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	95 11	51 4	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	96 0	51 7	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	97 1	52 3	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	99	100	99	100	99	100	100	100	100
1931	90	91	90	98	98	93	94	193	97
1932	84	84	84	96	96	85	90	86	93
1933	81	81	81	95	95	82	88	83	94
1934	82	82	82	96	95	82	88	83	94
1935	83	83	83	97	96	84	89	85	98
1936	84	85	84	100	98	93	95	94	100
1937	88	89	88	104	102	101	100	102	100
1938	93	94	93	107	105	106	104	106	101†
1938 : Sept.	93	94	93	107	105	106	*	*	*
Dec.	94	95	94	107	105	108	*	*	*
1939 : March	94	96	94	107	106	108	*	*	*
June	95	97	* 95	107	106	108	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	108	—	108	—	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	104	105	104	104	103	102	102	102	102
1931	106	107	106	109	109	103	105	103	103
1932	104	104	104	110	110	102	107	103	104
1933	104	103	104	112	111	103	111	105	108
1934	103	103	103	111	110	102	109	104	106
1935	102	103	102	111	110	101	107	102	111
1936	102	103	102	111	110	108	111	109	112
1937	103	105	104	110	108	111	109	111	110
1938	106	108	106	113	110	112	110	112	107†
1938 : Sept.	106	107	106	113	110	112	*	*	*
Dec.	107	108	107	113	111	112	*	*	*
1939 : March	105	107	105	114	113	112	*	*	*
June	107	109	107	115	113	111	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	112	—	109	*	*	*

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : Weighted averages of the rates for men and women.

Australia. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : last day of the month.

Great Britain (including Northern Ireland). Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : Ministry of Labour series (M. of L.) : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question ; London and Cambridge Economic Service series (L. & C.E.S.) : averages for the month in question.

New Zealand. Annual figures : averages : monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Union of South Africa. Annual figures : 30 September of each year.

(c) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	Germany		Estonia			United States			
	M.°, ind., transp.°	Agr., ind., transp., com.	Industries, etc.			B.L.S. Series: Industries	N.I.C.B. Series: Industries		
	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.
	weekly	weekly [1]	weekly			weekly	weekly		
Money wages									
		RM.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	$	$	$	$
1929	*	31.19	19.02	19.92	15.82	*	30.64	17.61	28.55
1930	*	30.57	19.32	10.95	15.82	25.34	27.66	15.98	25.84
1931	*	27.73	17.23	10.22	14.42	22.38	24.00	14.69	22.62
1932	*	22.88	15.28	9.56	12.99	17.86	17.96	11.73	17.05
1933	*	21.88	14.70	9.52	12.68	17.36	18.69	12.35	17.71
1934	*	22.83	15.17	9.84	13.25	18.93	21.00	14.44	20.12
1935	*	24.04	16.45	10.51	14.21	20.85	23.39	15.28	22.28
1936	*	25.25	18.00	11.22	15.20	22.60	25.96	15.59	24.47
1937	*	26.52	19.58	11.95	16.89	24.95	28.83	16.88	27.10
1938	*	27.84	20.80	12.45	18.01	22.70	25.87	15.55	24.49
1938 : Sept.	*	*	21.26	12.59	18.30	23.24	27.38	16.32	25.73
Dec.	*	*	21.98	13.27	18.92	24.25	27.76	17.00	26.02
1939 : March	*	*	20.99	13.08	18.00	24.18	27.99	17.20	26.25
June	*	*	23.16	13.27	19.78	24.17	28.80	16.57	26.79
Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	24.69	29.58	17.06	27.58
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	92	98	102	100	100	93	90	91	91
1931	81	89	91	94	91	83	78	83	79
1932	67	73	80	88	82	68	59	67	60
1933	68	70	77	87	80	66	61	70	62
1934	73	73	80	90	84	72	69	82	70
1935	75	77	86	96	90	78	76	87	78
1936	78	81	95	103	96	83	85	89	86
1937	81	85	103	109	107	91	94	96	95
1938	85	89	109	114	114	83	84	88	86
1938 : Sept.	86	*	112	115	116	85	89	93	90
Dec.	88	*	116	122	120	89	91	97	91
1939 : March	—	*	110	120	114	89	91	98	92
June	—	*	122	122	125	89	94	94	94
Sept.	—	*	—	—	—	90	97	97	97
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	96	102	(114)	(113)	(112)	95	93	94	94
1931	92	101	(106)	(109)	(107)	94	90	96	91
1932	85	94	(100)	(109)	(102)	84	75	86	77
1933	89	92	(103)	(116)	(107)	86	82	94	83
1934	93	93	(107)	(121)	(113)	92	86	103	89
1935	94	96	(115)	(128)	(119)	96	92	105	95
1936	97	100	(113)	(123)	(115)	101	100	104	101
1937	99	105	(116)	(123)	(120)	107	106	108	107
1938	104	109	(116)	(121)	(121)	100	98	102	99
1938 : Sept.	106	*	(120)	(124)	(124)	102	104	108	105
Dec.	107	*	(124)	(130)	(128)	107	106	113	106
1939 : March	—	*	(117)	(127)	(121)	108	108	115	108
June	—	*	(130)	(129)	(133)	108	111	111	111
Sept.	—	*	—	—	—	108	112	113	113
Persons covered	—	16,393,700	31,793	16,480	48,273	4,238,000	*	*	*

[1] Insurance statistics (invalidity).

Germany. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Estonia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

United States. Bureau of Labor Statistics series (B.L.S.) : Annual figures : averages (except money wages for 1930 : averages for the last quarter) ; monthly figures : a week nearest to the 15th of the month. National Industrial Conference Board series (N.I.C.B.) : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : first week of the month.

(c) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	France	Hungary	Italy	Japan				Norway
	Industries	Industries	Industries etc.	Imperial Cabinet series			Bank of Japan series	M., industries
				Industries			Industries	
	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.
	weekly [1]	daily	monthly	daily			daily	daily
Money wages								
		Pengö		Sen	Sen	Sen		Kr.
1929	*	5.58	*	264.5	98.9	206.4	*	11.75
1930	*	5.35	*	255.1	91.3	200.2	*	11.80
1931	*	5.05	*	243.0	82.1	187.0	*	11.26
1932	*	4.67	*	250.6	76.5	190.9	*	11.48
1933	*	4.34	*	254.4	73.5	187.9	*	11.31
1934	*	4.05	*	248.6	72.5	189.3	*	11.34
1935	*	4.02	*	243.3	72.6	188.1	*	11.34
1936	*	4.03	*	241.5	73.8	190.1	*	11.71
1937	*	4.09	*	247.6	78.4	195.7	*	12.59
1938	*	—	*	248.9	84.9	205.9	*	13.82
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	245.5	84.7	201.8	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	261.3	91.1	216.2	*	*
1939 : March	*	*	*	265.7 [3]	86.7 [3]	208.1 [3]	*	*
June	*	*	*	247.3	84.8	192.4	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	—	—	—	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)								
1929	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	96	95	96	92	97	95	100
1931	*97*	91	87	92	83	91	87	96
1932	*88*	84	85	95	77	92	85	98
1933	*90*	78	85	96	74	91	86	96
1934	*89*	73	81	94	73	92	88	97
1935	*87*	72	74	92	73	91	88	97
1936	*103*	72	78	91	75	92	88	100
1937	*118*	73	90	94	79	95	93	107
1938	*124*	—	94 [3]	94	86	100	102	118
1938 : Sept.	*	*	97 [3]	93	86	98	102	*
Dec.	*	*	98 [3]	99	92	105	111	*
1939 : March	*	*	101 [3]	100 [3]	88 [3]	101 [3]	*	*
June	*	*	—	93	86	93	*	*
Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)								
1929	*	100	100	*	*	*	*	100
1930	100	(106)	99	*	*	*	*	104
1931	*100*	(106)	100	*	*	*	*	104
1932	*98*	(100)	102	100	100	100	100	109
1933	*103*	(101)	107	*99*	*94*	*96*	*99*	109
1934	*106*	(96)	108	*93*	*89*	*93*	*97*	108
1935	*111*	(93)	97	*88*	*86*	*89*	*94*	106
1936	*120*	(88)	94	*86*	*86*	*88*	*92*	107
1937	*115*	(84)	100	*84*	*87*	*87*	*93*	107
1938	*107*	—	96 [3]	*79*	*88*	*85*	*95*	114
1938 : Sept.	*	*	100 [3]	*76*	*86*	*82*	*93*	*
Dec.	*	*	100 [3]	*81*	*92*	*88*	*102*	*
1939 : March	*	*	103 [3]	*81* [3]	*87* [3]	*84* [3]	*	*
June	*	*	—	*74*	*83*	*76*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*
Persons covered	*	275,000	1,526,636	1,048,576	515,025	1,563,601	1,598,111	—

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : hourly *rates* multiplied by hours *actually* worked per week.
[2] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : hourly earnings multiplied by hours actually worked per month.
[3] From 1939, extension of the scope of the statistics, in which the statistics of the Bank of Japan have been incorporated.

France. Annual figures : averages (see details at table *a*).
Hungary. Annual figures : averages.
Italy. Annual and monthly figures : averages.
Japan. Annual and monthly figures : averages.
Norway. Annual figures : third quarter of each year, except for 1931 (fourth quarter).

(c) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	Luxemburg			Netherlands	Poland	Rumania	Sweden		
	Mines, industries, etc.			M., ind., transp., com., local auth.	Industries	Ind. (some agr. occup., transp., com.)	Mines[2], industries, transp., com.		
	M.	W.	M. W.[1]	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.
	daily			daily [2]	weekly	monthly	weekly		
Money wages									
	Frs.	Frs.		Fl.	Zl.		Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1929	*	*	*	4.20	*	*	59.63	34.19	52.98
1930	*	*	*	4.23	*	*	61.66	34.50	55.10
1931	*	*	*	4.22	*	*	57.41	32.70	50.95
1932	*	*	*	4.07	29.60	*	56.48	32.28	50.46
1933	41.11	20.92	*	3.92	28.01	*	54.73	32.69	49.16
1934	39.67	20.99	*	3.77	26.74	*	56.10	32.57	50.11
1935	42.00	21.47	*	3.64	26.96	*	57.63	33.65	51.54
1936	43.43	21.59	*	3.54	27.30	*	59.62	34.64	52.99
1937	48.51	21.77	*	3.52	29.30	*	61.48	35.40	54.75
1938	—	—	*	3.54	—	*	64.28	36.54	57.24
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929=100)									
1929	*	*	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	*	*	*	101	*	96	103	101	104
1931	*	*	*	100	*	85	96	96	96
1932	*	*	*	97	**100**	69	95	94	95
1933	**100**	**100**	**100**	93	*95*	63	92	96	93
1934	*96*	*100*	*96*	90	*90*	62	94	95	95
1935	*102*	*103*	*104*	87	*91*	61	97	98	97
1936	*106*	*103*	*107*	84	*92*	62	100	101	100
1937	*118*	*104*	*118*	84	*99*	66	103	104	103
1938	—	—	—	84	—	67	108	107	108
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	68	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	67	*	*	*
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929=100)									
1929	*	*	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	*	*	*	(105)	*	(107)	106	104	107
1931	*	*	*	(112)	*	(116)	103	102	103
1932	*	*	*	(115)	**100**	(111)	102	102	103
1933	**100**	**100**	**100**	(112)	(*105*)	(111)	101	106	102
1934	*100*	*104*	*100*	(108)	(*108*)	(116)	103	104	104
1935	*108*	*109*	*110*	(107)	(*114*)	(110)	105	107	106
1936	*111*	*109*	*112*	(107)	(*119*)	(108)	108	109	108
1937	*118*	*104*	*118*	(103)	(*119*)	(100)	108	109	108
1938	—	—	—	(102)	—	(90)	110†	110†	111†
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	(92)	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	(89)	*	*	*
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	*
Persons covered	29,019	1,795	30,814	1,326,296	—	—	362,229	69,671	466,399

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the earnings of men and women.
[2] Insurance statistics (accidents).
Luxemburg. Annual figures: averages.
Netherlands. Annual figures: averages.
Poland. Annual figures: one pay period (generally a week) in the month of August in each year.
Rumania. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for January, April, July and October.
Sweden. Annual figures: averages. From 1929 to 1931, approximate figures.

(c) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	Switzerland				Czecho-Slovakia	U.S.S.R.		Yugoslavia	
	Industries, some transp., com., etc.				Agr., ind., some transp., com., etc.	M., industries		Croatia and Slavonia	Ind., some transp., com.
								M., ind., tr., com.	
	M. st. mni-sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W. [1]	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.
	daily				daily [2]	daily	monthly	monthly	daily [3]
Money wages									
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		Kč.	Rbls.	Rbls.	Dinars	Dinars
1929	12.45	9.85	6.45	*	19.11	3.07	77.06	*	26.32
1930	12.57	9.90	6.36	*	19.13	3.55	82.59	1,143	26.56
1931	12.62	9.97	6.36	*	18.66	4.11	96.10	1,137	26.19
1932	12.92	10.35	6.54	*	17.73	4.88	115.42	1,042	24.58
1933	12.73	10.08	6.32	*	16.72	5.18	126.08	988	23.22
1934	12.75	10.00	6.46	*	16.30	5.94	147.30	999	22.24
1935	12.39	9.73	6.36	*	15.93	7.55	186.75	890	21.65
1936	12.12	9.51	6.11	*	16.18	9.23	225.58	909	21.66
1937	11.90	9.69	6.24	*	17.09	10.15	242.46	950	22.65
1938	12.11	9.58	6.34	*	17.71	—	—	973	23.64
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	18.01	*	*	971	24.23
Dec.	*	*	*	*	18.04	*	*	973	23.85
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	18.44	*	*	—	23.72
June	*	*	*	*	19.57	*	*	—	23.95
Sept.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	—	24.70
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100
1930	101	101	99	100	100	116	107	100	101
1931	101	101	99	101	98	134	125	*100*	100
1932	100	100	100	100	93	159	150	*91*	93
1933	*99*	*97*	*97*	*98*	88	169	164	*86*	88
1934	*99*	*97*	*99*	*98*	85	193	191	*79*	84
1935	*96*	*94*	*97*	*96*	83	246	242	*78*	82
1936	*94*	*92*	*93*	*93*	85	301	293	*80*	82
1937	*92*	*94*	*95*	*93*	89	331	315	*83*	86
1938	*94*	*93*	*97*	*94*	93	—	353†	*85*	90
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	94	*	*	*85*	92
Dec.	*	*	*	*	94	*	*	*85*	91
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	96	*	*	—	90
June	*	*	*	*	102	*	*	—	91
Sept.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	—	94
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929=100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	*	*	*	100
1930	103	102	101	102	(102)	*	*	100	(110)
1931	109	109	106	108	(104)	*	*	*100*	(114)
1932	100	100	100	100	(101)	*	*	*99*	(115)
1933	*104*	*103*	*102*	103	(96)	*	*	*106*	(111)
1934	*106*	*103*	*106*	105	(95)	*	*	*106*	(112)
1935	*103*	*101*	*105*	103	(90)	*	*	*96*	(111)
1936	*100*	*98*	*99*	99	(91)	*	*	*95*	(111)
1937	*93*	*94*	*96*	94	(95)	*	*	*92*	(110)
1938	*94*	*93*	*98*	95	(94)	*	*	*92*	(104)
1938 : Sept.	*	*	*	*	(95)	*	*	*94*	(105)
Dec.	*	*	*	*	(93)	*	*	*92*	(102)
1939 : March	*	*	*	*	(93)	*	*	—	(102)
June	*	*	*	*	(95)	*	*	—	(103)
Sept.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	—	(107)
Persons covered	6,183	5,263	1,084	12,530	1,363,341	6,722,000		—	715,186

[1] Series calculated by the I.L.O. : weighted averages of the earnings for men and women.
[2] Insurance statistics (sickness).
[3] Insurance statistics (sickness and accidents).

Switzerland. Annual figures : averages : from 1932 onwards the index numbers of daily earnings are no longer strictly comparable with those for previous years owing to a change in method.

Czecho-Slovakia. Annual and monthly figures : averages. From 1939, the data refer to the territory of Bohemia-Moravia only.

U.S.S.R. Annual figures : averages.

Yugoslavia. Monthly earnings : annual figures : December of each year ; monthly figures : averages. Daily earnings : annual and monthly figures : averages.

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Book Notes

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

BELGIUM

HAINAUT

Enseignement technique. Ecoles industrielles subventionnées et contrôlées par la Province de Hainaut. Quarante-sixième rapport annuel de l'inspection. Exercice 1937-1938. Charleroi, 1939. 104 pp.

DENMARK

Arbejdsdirektoren. *Indberetning til Socialministeriet om Arbejdsanvisningen og Arbejdsløshedsforsikringen m.m. i Regnskabsaaret 1937-38.* Copengagen, 1939. 94 pp.

Annual report, for the year 1 April 1937-31 March 1938, of the Director of Labour in Denmark on the activities of employment exchanges (including the granting of employment permits to foreigners, special measures for the training of domestic workers, and the control of apprenticeship contracts) and on unemployment insurance.

GREAT BRITAIN

Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. *Methods for the Detection of Toxic Gases in Industry.* Leaflet No. 6. *Carbon Bisulphide Vapour.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1939. IV + 8 pp. 3d.

This study follows the same plan as that of other studies already published in this series. It examines the properties of carbon bisulphide vapour, the industries in which it is encountered, the poisonous effects of the gas, and methods of detection. The instructions for carrying out the test for carbon bisulphide vapour include a description of the apparatus used, the preparation of the reagent, and the standard colours employed. A few lines are devoted to first aid in cases of acute poisoning.

Report of the British Guiana Refugee Commission to the Advisory Committee on Political Refugees appointed by the President of the United States of America. 17 pp. 4d. *Appendices to the Report.* 106 pp. 2s. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1939.

This report was analysed in *Industrial and Labour Information* Vol. LXXI, No. 11, 11 September 1939, pages 327-329.

HONG KONG

Report by the Labour Officer, **Mr. H. R. Butters,** *on Labour and Labour Conditions in Hong Kong.* Hong Kong, Noronha and Co., 1939. 66 pp.

The British Colony of Hong Kong has always been closely affected by events in China, and during the recent hostilities it is estimated that to its population

of roughly one million between a quarter and half a million refugees have been added. The present valuable survey of labour conditions and relations leaves the impression that in such circumstances social reform not only remains practicable, but becomes all the more necessary. In particular, the Labour Officer recommends the adoption of legislation to encourage trade unions and to fix conditions of employment in collaboration with representatives of the employers and workers, together with the strengthening of the labour inspectorate and the better legislative and administrative control of labour conditions in factories.

SWEDEN

Finansdepartementet. *Betänkande om statstjänstemäns ställning vid arbetskonflikter, avgivet av inom finansdepartementet tillkallade sakkunniga.* Statens offentliga utredningar 1939 : 19. Stockholm, 1939. 82 pp.

Report of the Committee of Experts appointed by the Swedish Government to consider the position of State employees in labour disputes (cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LXXI, No. 10, 4 September 1939, p. 316).

UNITED STATES

Advisory Committee on Education. *Special Problems of Negro Education.* By Doxey A. Wilkerson. Staff Study Number 12. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. xvi + 171 pp. 25 cents.

Department of Labor. Division of Labor Standards. *Silicosis Prevention. Dust Control in Foundries.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. iii + 25 pp., illustr. 10 cents.

This pamphlet outlines some of the tried and proved means of reducing the risk due to silica dust in foundries. It describes simple, inexpensive methods and practices which may readily be adapted to the average foundry.

Public Works Administration. Division of Information. *America Builds. The Record of PWA.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. vii + 298 pp., illustr. 70 cents.

Treasury Department. Public Health Service. *Dermatitis and Coexisting Fungous Infections Among Plate Printers.* By Paul A. Neal and C. W. Emmons. Public Health Bulletin No. 246. Washington, 1939. v + 56 pp. 15 cents.

The authors describe the technique of plate printing and the conditions of work in the industry, and examine the relation between the industrial environment and certain skin diseases. Special attention is devoted to fungous infection.

—— —— *Silicosis and Lead Poisoning among Pottery Workers.* By Robert H. Flinn and others. Public Health Bulletin No. 244. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. viii + 178 pp., illustr. 30 cents.

A detailed survey of technical conditions in the pottery industry is followed by an examination of the risk of silicosis due to dust and that of lead poisoning in the industry, and by a detailed medical study based on the authors' personal observations. The work is fully illustrated and includes a bibliography in which considerable space is given to works on silicosis in the pottery industry.

NEW YORK

Joint Legislative Committee on Discrimination in Employment of the Middle Aged. *Report.* Legislative Document (1939), No. 77. Albany, 1939. 66 pp., tables.

This report was analysed in *Industrial and Labour Information* Vol. LXXII, No. 1, 2 October 1939, pp. 19-20.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

American Association for Social Security. *Social Security in the United States 1939. A Record of the Twelfth National Conference on Social Security, New York*

City, April 14 and 15, 1939. Together with a census of Social Security in the United States. New York, 1939. 235 pp. $2.

The annual sessions of the National Conference on Social Security offer a valuable opportunity for debate on the current and changing problems of the planning and application of social insurance in the United States. The present volume contains twenty-four papers, eight of which concern problems of unemployment insurance, and four the amendment of the Federal old-age insurance system. Perhaps the most interesting, and certainly the most controversial, group of papers is that which presents the case for and against health insurance, now the principal issue in the field of social security.

Anderberg, Rudolf and Westerlund, Gunnar. *Psykologisk anslagsprövning och personurval. Undersökningar inom textilindustrien.* Stockholm, Sveriges Industriförbund, 1939. 55 pp.

The first results—relating to the textile industry—of the collaboration, begun in 1937, between the Foremen's Institute of the Federation of Swedish Industries and the Psychological Laboratory of Uppsala University, in connection with psychometric tests and vocational selection.

Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisasjon. Det statistiske kontor. *Industrien i opgangskonjunkturen 1932-1937. En analyse.* Oslo, Arbeidernes aktietrykkeri, 1939. 150 pp.

This book, which forms a continuation of a study on "Business Cycles, Prices, and Trade Union Wage Policy" previously published by the Statistical Service of the Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions, contains a detailed statistical analysis of the economic position of the various Norwegian industries during the boom period of 1932-1937. It is intended as a contribution to the discussion of the problem of a "common wage" policy (aiming particularly at raising the wage standard of the lowest-paid groups) and of introducing economic investigations as a basis for collective wage negotiations.

Arbeidernes Oplysningsforbund. *Norsk naeringsliv og dets problemer. En materialsamling til bruk i oplysningsarbeidet.* Oslo, Tiden Norsk Forlag, 1938. 272 pp.

A survey of Norwegian economy and its problems, designed for the use of the adult education movement.

Bauzil, M. *Note sur les méthodes de colonisation indigène de l'Office du Niger :* 1938. 129 pp., illustr. diagrams, tables.

Herbart, Pierre. *Le chancre du Niger.* Preface by André GIDE. Paris, Gallimard, 1939. 124 pp. 12 frs.

Two documents relating to the irrigation and Native colonisation scheme in the Niger valley in French West Africa, which is being carried out by the *Office du Niger*, a body set up by a Decree of 1932. The first of these documents is a detailed explanation of the methods of colonisation employed by the *Office*, and of the present and estimated future results ; it is written by the Deputy Director-General of the *Office*. The second is a scathing indictment of the whole scheme, on the ground that the expenditure of public money involved is out of all proportion to the possible results.

Biljon, F. J. van. *State Interference in South Africa.* London, P. S. King 1939. VI + 322 pp. 15s.

After a brief review of the doctrinal aspects of State intervention in the economic sphere, this study examines the evolution of State action in South Africa in relation to trade, industry, agriculture and labour relations. Finally, the prospects of mining, industry and agriculture in South Africa are discussed and certain objectives suggested. In particular, Dr. Biljon argues that the "over-development" of gold-mining should be counteracted by expanding agriculture and manufactures. The economic basis for such a policy, he contends, requires an increase in the Union's European population and a simultaneous improvement of the backward sections of the nation, whatever their race.

Cayton, Horace R., and Mitchell, George S. *Black Workers and the New Unions.* Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1939. XVIII + 473 pp., tables. $4.

This volume is the third of a series of studies planned in 1933 by a special Committee on Negroes in the Economic Reconstruction ; it is "a study of the economic status and industrial position of the Negroes as industrial labourers and of their participation in labour unions". For the purposes of the study the authors chose three industries for enquiry : iron and steel, meat packing, and railroad car shops ; these are industries which employ large numbers of unskilled workers, in which a large percentage of the total number of employed Negroes are to be found, and in which "the question of union organisation has been bitterly fought". In each case, the authors describe the entry of Negroes into the industry, their present position, their relations with white workers both in the workplaces and in the unions, and the present position of the movement for the organisation of Negro workers. A concluding section deals with the social organisation of the Negro community in the United States and its relation to the trade union movement, and also outlines a programme for Negro labour. The authors favour the establishment of a federation of Negro trade union members (or "United Negro Trades") on the lines of organisations such as the United Hebrew Trades, which proved their value in the struggle of workers belonging to immigrant races for recognition in the trade unions of the country.

Croner, Fritz. *De svenska privatanställda. En sociologisk studie.* Stockholm, Kooperativa förbundets bokförlag, 1939. 474 pp., tables. 12 kr.

This study, which was carried out at the Statistical Institute of Lund University, adds considerably to the knowledge of the conditions of salaried employees in Sweden. It is based upon returns obtained during 1936 from 7,315 technical employees, office and bank clerks, shop assistants, etc., constituting 3.4 per cent. of all the employees in the categories covered. As the data were compiled with the co-operation of salaried employees' organisations, they relate mainly to organised employees. For some of the more important parts of the study—those concerning salaries, hours of work and holidays—they correspond broadly to the results obtained from official enquiries based upon more extensive original material (*Arbetstidsförhållanden och lönevillkor för privatanställda*, published by the Swedish Social Board in 1938, Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXIX, No. 1, January 1939, pages 54-60) ; the present study gives, however, a more detailed account of the conditions of salaried employees and covers a wider field. It contains, for instance, statistics relating to the social structure of the population group selected (origin, family conditions, etc.). Using sociological methods of research, hitherto little applied in Sweden, the author describes fifty typical cases (salary, career, age and family conditions). In the last two chapters, the economic and social problems of salaried employees as a special population group are discussed.

Deffontaines, P., Delamarre, M., Jean-Brunhes, and Bertoquy, P. *Problèmes de géographie humaine.* La nouvelle journée, 1. Paris, Bloud et Gay, 1939. 235 pp.

Doyle, Wilson K. *Independent Commissions in the Federal Government.* Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1939. IX + 106 pp. $1.50.

Downey, Sheridan. *Pensions or Penury ?* New York, London, Harper, 1939. 113 pp. $1.

Du Bois, W. E. Burghardt. *Black Folk, Then and Now. An Essay in the History and Sociology of the Negro Race.* New York, Henry Holt, 1939. IX + 401 pp. $3.50.

Gerbis, Dr. Hermann, and Koenig, Dr. Robert. *Drucklufterkrankungen* (*Caissonkrankheiten*). Mit einem Vorwort von Dr. KROHN. Arbeit und Gesundheit. Sozialmedizinische Schriftenreihe aus dem Gebiete des Reichsarbeitsministeriums. Herausgegeben von Professor Dr. MARTINECK. Heft 35. Leipzig, Georg Thieme, 1939. 195 pp. 6.27 marks.

The different chapters of this work, which is devoted to caisson disease, deal with the technical aspects of work carried on in compressed air, the cause and

nature of caisson disease, and the special conditions at the Havelbrücke works. The legal provisions in force in Germany in regard to work in compressed air are given at the end of the volume.

Gilbert, Richard V., and others. *An Economic Program for American Democracy.* New York, Vanguard Press, 1938. 91 pp.

The essence of the programme put forward in this book is continuing and unlimited public investment. The problems of public finance raised by the programme in the long run seem to be inadequately considered, and no attempt is made to deal with recent doubts expressed by economists as to the stability of an economy in conditions of full employment. The book is nevertheless a well-written and stimulating defence of the general trend of the economic and social measures taken by the United States Government since 1933.

Griffin, John I. *Strikes. A Study in Quantitative Economics.* New York, Columbia University Press ; London, P. S. King, 1939. 319 pp., tables, diagrams.

A study of strikes in the United States from 1880 to 1937, largely based on data relating to the number of strikes and of strikers collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It includes a summary of the material available, and analyses of variations in frequency of strikes in relation to the business cycle, of wholesale prices and money wages, of causes in relation to duration and results of strikes, and of the relation between unions and strikes. Special attention is paid to State statistics for the period 1906-1915, and chapters are devoted to the data for Massachusetts for the period 1880-1937, and to an analysis of strikes in major industries in the States of New York and Massachusetts. Supplementary sources of data other than State and Federal are also reviewed. Finally, a summary is presented of significant conclusions in the literature of the subject.

Hasselbach, Dr. Hanskarl von. *Die Endangitis obliterans.* Arbeit und Gesundheit. Sozialmedizinische Schriftenreihe aus dem Gebiete des Reichsarbeitsministeriums. Herausgegeben von Professor Dr. MARTINECK. Heft 36. Leipzig. Georg Thieme, 1939. 168 pp. 5.63 marks.

Haynes, Fred. E. *The American Prison System.* New York, London, McGraw-Hill, 1939. VII + 377 pp. $4.

This general survey of the prison system in the United States contains an account of the efforts made to incorporate prison labour into the larger field of free industry and trade. The author points out that before the depression of 1929 gradual progress was being made towards a solution of the prison labour problem, notably through the abolition of the contract system and the adoption of the State-use and State-account systems. After 1929, however, the opposition to prison labour increased enormously. By 1933, fifteen States had passed laws either prohibiting the sale of convict-made goods outside the State or requiring the labelling of such goods as prison-made. In the N.R.A. draft Codes of Fair Competition relating to the cotton-garment and other industries, clauses were introduced to exclude prison-made goods from the open market. In January 1934, various States entered into a voluntary Compact of Fair Competition for prison industries. Uniform hours of labour for inmates and for the operation of productive machinery in prisons were established. In the manufacture of cotton garments, the prisons reduced their maximum hours per week per man from 40 to 36, in accordance with the hours prescribed in the Code for that industry. In October 1934, an enquiry into the Compact was made by a committee appointed by the N.R.A., and the representatives of organised labour declared before the committee that competition in the open market between goods made in prison and those made by free labour must cease immediately. The committee concluded that prison-made goods should be removed from the open market, and made various recommendations to this end. In September 1935, the President appointed a Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, which took over the study of the problem of prison labour, and has since been engaged in surveying the position in the different States and making constructive suggestions for its solution. In the opinion of the author, the opposition to prison-made goods showed that the campaign against such goods was not a drive to eliminate unfair competition, but a struggle to eliminate all competition arising out of prison production.

Herbart, Pierre. *Le chancre du Niger.* Preface by André GIDE. Paris, Gallimard, 1939. 124 pp. 12 frs.

This volume is analysed above with another on the same subject by Mr. M. BAUZIL.

Horwitz, James W. *The Risk of Unemployment and its Effect on Unemployment Compensation.* Publication of the Graduate School of Business Administration Harvard University, Vol. XXV, No. 5, Business Research Studies, No. 21. Boston, 1938. VII + 80 pp. $1.00.

A statistical study designed to ascertain whether the risk of unemployment and therefore the tax rate necessary to raise the funds out of which to pay unemployment insurance benefits, is substantially the same in all the States of the United States. The author concludes that the risk of unemployment for which compensation would be paid is not the same in all the States, and that, consequently, the basic assumption underlying the present system of separate State funds fed by a single pay-roll tax applying (in general) to all industries and to all States is unsound. Several alternatives suggested to replace this system are discussed in the light of the author's findings.

Kalecki, Michal. *Place Nominalne i Realne. Money and Real Wages.* Instytut Gospodarstwa Społecznego. Institute of Social Economy. Warsaw, 1939. 59 pp.

This study is primarily a criticism of the view that the reduction of money wages is an adequate remedy for unemployment. The author discusses the "classical theory of money and real wages", and bases his argument against it on Keynes' theory of money wages and the doctrine of imperfect competition. He reaches the conclusion that in a world where monopolies and imperfect competition prevail the wage cut tends to depress both employment and real wages. In the second part of the study the results of the author's theoretical analysis are tested by an examination of the changes in wages and employment in Poland in the period 1928-1937.

Kerwin, Jerome G. *Making Democracy Work.* Christian Democracy Series No. 3. Social Action Department, National Catholic Welfare Conference. New York, Paulist Press, 1939. 32 pp. 5 cents.

King, Willford I. *The Causes of Economic Fluctuations. Possibilities of Anticipation and Control.* New York, Ronald Press Company, 1938. XV + 353 pp. $3.50.

Le Roy, Albert. *Catholics and the International Labor Organization.* Printed for the Social Action Department. National Catholic Welfare Conference. New York, 1939. VIII + 51 pp.

A short but interesting account of the origin, principles, structure, and achievements of the International Labour Organisation. Father Le Roy shows that the guiding principles of the institution are in close conformity with Catholic principles, and describes how Catholics in different countries have co-operated in the work of the Organisation.

Magyary, Zoltan. *The Industrial State.* Edited by Raymond L. BUELL. New York, Thomas Nelson, 1938. XI + 203 pp.

Morgan, A. E. *The Needs of Youth.* A Report made to King George's Jubilee Trust Fund. London, New York, Toronto, Oxford University Press, 1939. XI + 434 pp. 10s.

An interesting report on the social, educational, industrial and recreational conditions of young people between 14 and 16 years of age in Great Britain. The author describes the public and private services which concern themselves with the welfare of adolescents, of whom there were about 3,500,000 in Great Britain and Northern Ireland at the time when the report was written, and considers the extent to which public and pricate resources must be used if these young people are to be cared for adequately. The conclusion he arrives at is that the voluntary system is doing valuable work and that it should be strengthened, but that the

problem can only be solved satisfactorily if the supply of public funds and services is largely increased. Apart from the necessity for a general improvement in living and working conditions, two other definite conclusions emerge from the report. First, boys and girls must not be thrust into the employment market at 14 or even 15 years of age ; they should continue to receive education on a compulsory part-time basis until the age of 18. Secondly, education must be organised so as to fit the growing citizen not only for work but also for leisure, which, under modern conditions, is a problem of increasing importance.

National Council of Social Service. *Out of Adversity. A survey of the Clubs for Men and Women which have grown out of the Needs of Unemployment.* London, 1939. 63 pp. 6d.

This pamphlet gives some interesting information on the development and activities of the clubs for men and women in Great Britain which, originally intended to mitigate the hardships of the unemployed, are now developing into permanent social institutions to which both the employed and the unemployed belong. At the time when the pamphlet was written there were about 900 clubs for men and 500 for women, with a membership of about 120,000 and 40,000 respectively. The average membership of a men's club was 130, of whom a quarter were in employment. The clubs have become centres of social and educational activity, but their chief value lies in the fellowship they provide for men whose background, outlook, and economic circumstances, are similar.

Niemyska-Hessen, Maria. *Reemigracja z Francji w dobie kryzysu na tle wyników ankiety 1936 roku. Emigrants polonais rapatriés de France durant la crise d'après l'enquête de 1936.* Instytut Gospodarstwa Społecznego. Institut d'économie sociale. Warsaw, 1939. IV + 215 pp.

With a view to throwing light on the conditions under which foreign workers left France during the recent economic depression (from 1931 to 1936, more than 140,000 Polish workers left France) and on the situation of repatriated migrants on their arrival in their native country, the Institute of Social Economy at Warsaw made an enquiry among 351 persons who took part in this movement. The information was collected in the county of Poznan, an area which has long provided emigrants to other lands, particularly France, and to which, during the years 1931 to 1936, more than 15,000 migrants returned from France. The results of this investigation are recorded in great detail by Mrs. Niemyska-Hessen, who is the author of a former study based on the results of a similar enquiry carried out in 1934 among repatriated migrants in another province of Poland (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXIV, No. 6, December 1936, pp. 782-789).

After tracing the history of the migration and repatriation movements between Poland and France, the author analyses the circumstances in which repatriation took place, the manner in which it was carried out, the composition of the returning groups, the situation of the migrants, and their settlement and living conditions on their return to Poland. The results of the enquiry show that repatriation took place in most cases against the wish of the migrants, and that the average duration of their stay in France had been nine years. Having returned to their native country after such a long absence and at a time when Poland was facing the serious effects of the economic depression, these repatriated migrants soon found themselves reduced to a state of extreme poverty, 32 per cent. only of the total number having found some means of earning a living. In the author's opinion, there is need for agreement between the countries concerned to safeguard migrants against the dangers of repatriation under such unfavourable conditions.

Northwestern University Medical School. Department of Industrial Medicine. *Proceedings. Occupational Disease Symposium, 26 and 27 September 1938, Chicago, Illinois.* 1938. 99 pp., typescript. $3.

The subject treated in these papers are as follows : the present status of industrial medical education ; the scope of the occupational disease research problem ; traumatic neurosis ; the place of physical examination in industry and the placement of the employee in relation to his physical status ; industrial medical surveys ; industrial health and safety and the practising physician ; peripheral vascular disease in industry ; and cardiac disease in industry.

Parant, Jean-Victor. *Le problème du tourisme populaire. Emploi des congés payés et institutions de vacances ouvrières en France et à l'étranger.* Préface de Maurice Byé. Paris, Librairie générale de droit et de jurisprudence, 1939. XI + 236 pp.

An interesting and detailed description of the measures taken in France and in other countries in connection with the organisation of holidays with pay. The first part of the book outlines the problems arising from the extension of paid holidays. The second part contains information on the use made of paid holidays in countries other than France. The third part relates chiefly to the activities of private organisations for workers' holidays in France (occupational, denominational and athletic organisations and youth hostels), the different forms of workers' recreation (travel by various modes of transport, camping, stay in the country, and holidays at home), and the effects of paid holidays on tourist travel. The fourth part contains some criticisms and conclusions drawn from the experience of France and of other countries. Finally, the author sets out his own conception of the organisation of paid holidays in France. A number of appendices contain the texts of the relevant French legal and administrative provisions, a table relating to paid holidays in the different countries (based on the publications of the International Labour Office), and statistics of travel at reduced rates on the French railways in 1935, 1936, and 1937. The work includes a bibliography.

Phelps, Orme W. *The Legislative Background of the Fair Labor Standards Act. A Study of the Growth of National Sentiment in favour of Governmental Regulation of Wages, Hours and Child Labor.* Studies in Business Administration, Vol. IX, No. 3. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1939. IX + 71 pp. $1.

Picard, Roger. *Questions actuelles d'économie rurale.* Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1939. 268 pp.

Pietre, André. *La politique du pouvoir d'achat devant les faits. Expérience américaine et expérience française.* Paris, Librairie de Médicis, 1938. 256 pp. 30 frs.

Pizanty, Mihail. *La vitalité de l'industrie pétrolifère roumaine.* Institut économique roumain. Bucarest, "Cartea Românească", 1939. 24 pp., tables.

Resta, Manlio. *Il capitale fisso e le trasformazioni industriali.* Collana Ca' Foscari. Facoltà di Economia e Comercio, Venezia. Padua, Cedam, 1938. 176 pp. 16 lire.

Rimailho, Lieutenant-Colonel, and Dubreuil, Hyacinthe. *Deux hommes parlent du travail.* Paris, Bernard Grasset, 1939. 231 pp. 18 frs.

Saunders, S. A. *Studies in the Economy of the Maritime Provinces.* Preface by H. A. INNIS. Studies of the Institute of Public Affairs at Dalhousie University. Toronto, Macmillan, 1939. XII + 266 pp. 8s. 6d.

Sayre, Francis Bowes. *The Way Forward. The American Trade Agreements Program.* New York, Macmillan, 1939. X + 230 pp. $2.75.

Schmiedeler, Rev. Edgar. *Balanced Abundance.* Social Action Series, No. 15. Social Action Department, National Catholic Welfare Conference. New York, Paulist Press, 1939. 32 pp. 5 cents.

Schwärzler, Fritjoff. *Die Fortbildung des Rechts der Seeschiffahrt unter dem Einfluss technischer, wirtschaftlicher und sozialer Neuerungen.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Würde eines Doktors der Rechte der Hohen Rechts- und Staatswissenchaftlichen Fakultät der Christian-Albrechts-Universität zu Kiel. Coburg, Tageblatt-Haus, 1938. XII + 105 pp.

This work deals with the development of maritime law under the influence of technical, economic and social factors.

Sherwood, J. F. *Social Security and Payroll Tax Accounting.* Cincinnati, Chicago, Dallas, New York, San Francisco, South-Western Publishing Co. 256 pp.

Intended as a practical text-book for the instruction of accountants in the keeping of the records required by the Social Security Act, this methodical and compendious treaties, with its numerous reproductions of official forms, will also be found useful to any person desiring to study the technique of the administration of old-age and unemployment insurance in the United States.

Soule, George. *An Economic Constitution for Democracy.* Storrs Lectures on Jurisprudence, Yale School of Law, January 1939. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1939. 101 pp. $1.50.

Stolt, Erich. *Die Ersatzkassen der Krankenversicherung. Geschichte, Gestalt, Recht.* Zweite verbesserte und erweiterte Auflage. Wege zur Kassenpraxis. Schulungsschriften der "Arbeiter-Versorgung". Herausgeber: Bruno KÜHNE. Heft 33. Berlin, Langewort, 1939. 94 pp.

Study of the structure and development of sickness insurance "substitute" funds in Germany. These funds, which are set up by private initiative, are authorised to insure certain workers liable to insurance who, by reason of their affiliation to such a fund, are exempted from becoming members of the official sickness fund established under the National Insurance Code. The pamphlet describes the legal provisions governing the organisation and activities of the substitute funds, gives a full list of these funds and the associations set up by them, and analyses the agreements governing the relations between the funds and doctors, dentists, chemists, etc.

Sudau, Dr. Herbert. *Untersuchung über die Arbeitswirtschaft bäuerlicher Betriebe.* Schriften des Reichskuratoriums für Technik in der Landwirtschaft, Heft 87. Berlin, Paul Parey, 1938. 86 pp.

Suomen Osuuskauppojen Keskuskunta. *25 Jahre Produktivtätigkeit. 25 Years of Co-operative Production.* Helsingfors, 1939. 128 pp., illustr.

Szeibert, Dr. János. *Munkanélküliség és Napszámbér a Mezögazdaságban. Le chômage et les salaires agricoles en Hongrie.* Budapest, Viktor Hornyanszky, 1939. 64 pp., tables.

Study, based on official data, of agricultural unemployment in Hungary from 1935 to 1938, agricultural wages from 1933 to 1939, and seasonal migration of agricultural workers.

The Railroad Problem with reference to Government Ownership. Compiled by Harrison Boyd SUMMERS and Robert E. SUMMERS. The Reference Shelf, Vol. 13, No. 2. New York, H. W. Wilson, 1939. 308 pp., tables. $1.25.

Thomas, F. G. *The Changing Village. An Essay on Rural Reconstruction.* Discussion Books. General Editors: Richard WILSON, D.Litt., and A. J. J. RATCLIFF, M.A. London, Edinburgh, Paris, Melbourne, Toronto, New York, Thomas Nelson. 188 pp.

Tirloy, Jean. *Un problème d'éducation. Le chômage des jeunes salariés.* Preface by Eugène DUTHOIT. Lille, Société anonyme d'imprimerie et d'éditions du Nord, 1938. IX + 307 pp. 20 frs.

In order to help young workers to develop their faculties amid the confusion and perplexities caused by the present structural crisis of the social order, the author advocates their education on new lines in harmony with the new social order, giving a prominent place to the notions of vocation, work, and time, which have acquired special significance for young workers during the ordeal of unemployment. In the light of statistical data, events, and the results of a personal study of the different material and moral aspects of the problem of the unemployment of young workers, Mr. Tirloy reviews in turn the extent, causes, and effects, of unem-

ployment, the remedies proposed, and the methods of developing opportunities of employment. The book includes a detailed and comprehensive bibliography.

Torriente, Cosme de la. *Cuarenta anos de mi vida, 1898-1938.* Havana, " El Siglo XX ", 1939. LII + 470 pp.

Trade Union Congress (Australia). *Official Report of the Fourteenth Trade Union Congress, held at Brisbane, 25 November-3 December 1938.* Brisbane, 1939. 64 pp.

Università cattolica del S. Cuore. *Gli aggruppamenti di imprese nell'economia corporativa.* Contributi dell'Istituto di scienze economiche. Serie terza. Milan, " Vita e Pensero ", 1939. VIII + 220 pp. 18 lire.

University of Cambridge. Department of Agriculture. Farm Economics Branch. *Changes in the Economic Organisation of Agriculture. A comparative study of conditions in the Eastern Counties of England in 1937 and 1938.* Report No. 27. Cambridge, 1938. IV + 48 pp. 1s. 6d.

Van der Wijk, J. *Inkomens- en Vermogens- Verdeling. Distribution of Incomes and Fortunes.* Nederlandsch Economisch Instituut. Netherlands Economic Institute. Nr. 26. Haarlem, De Erven F. Bohn N.V., 1939. XV + 295 pp.

Wagner, Augusta. *Labor Legislation in China.* Peking, Yenching University, 1938. III + 301 pp.

Warnotte, D. *Le ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale.* Reprinted from the *Revue du Travail,* April and May 1939. Brussels, Imprimerie H. et M. Schaumans, 1939. 49 pp.

Concise survey of the development and present organisation of the Belgian Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, its different services and publications, and institutions connected with it.

Warsoff, Louis A. *Legal Aspects of Socialized Medicine.* New York University School of Law Contemporary Law Pamphlets, Series 1, No. 16. New York, New York University Law Quarterly Review, 1939. 21 pp.

Wedler, Dr. Hans-Wilfrid. *Klinik der Lungenasbestose. Klinische, statistische und röntgenologische Ergebnisse aus Reihenuntersuchungen an Asbestarbeitern über Krankheitsbild und Verlauf der Asbestose.* Arbeit und Gesundheit. Sozialmedizinische Schriftenreihe aus dem Gebiete des Reichsarbeitsministeriums. Herausgegeben von Dr. MARTINECK. Heft 34. Leipzig, Georg Thieme, 1939. 152 pp., illustr.

Asbestosis is a serious occupational disease which has begun to be well known only since 1930. In the opening chapters of this study, the author sets out the historical data concerning the disease, the mineralogical data relating to asbestos, and the technical data on industrial operations in which asbestos is used, describes the pathology and pathogeny of asbestosis, and gives a summary of the principal publications on the subject issued in Germany. He then describes in detail the information in regard to the disease which has been acquired at the medical clinic of the University of Berlin. An examination of 310 workers disclosed 70 cases of asbestosis (46 in the first stage of the disease ; 15 in the second stage ; 9 in the third stage) ; 240 workers were found to be unaffected. The data recorded relate in particular to warts due to asbestos, the radiographic picture of the lungs, the relation of asbestosis to tuberculosis and lung cancer, the development of the disease, the results of post-mortem examinations, the occupational risks involved in different industrial operations, and the definition of " serious asbestosis " in the German Act relating to compensation for industrial diseases. A number of radiographic reproductions are included at the end of the volume.

Zirnheld, Jules. *Cinquante années de syndicalisme chrétien.* Paris, Editions Spes, 1937. 275 pp.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Agenda Béranger à l'usage des ingénieurs, architectes, mécaniciens, industriels, entrepreneurs, électriciens et en général de tous les practiciens, 1939. Paris, Liége, Librairie polytechnique Ch. Béranger. x + 157 pp. 22 frs.

Dawes, Charles G. *A Journal of Reparations.* Forewords by Lord STAMP, and Dr. H. BRÜNING. New York, London, Macmillan, 1939. xxxv + 527 pp., appendices. $5.

Dzius, Kazimierz. *Osiedle na wyraju.* Warsaw, Wydawnictwo Zakladu Ubezpieczeń Spolecznych, 1938. 48 pp.

Leyder, Jean. *En Afrique il faut connaître l'homme.* Reprinted from the *Bulletin de la Société royale belge de géographie*, No. 2, 1938. Brussels. 15 pp.

—— *Le colonat au Congo belge, les classes sociales et le contact des races.* Reprinted from the *Bulletin de la Société royale belge de géographie*, No. 4, 1938. Brussels. 17 pp.

Linfield, H. S. *The State Population Census by Faiths, Meaning, Reliability and Value.* New York, Hasid's Bibliographic and Library Service, 1938. 69 pp., typescript.

Lockwood, William W. *British and American Relations in the Far East.* From *American Foreign Policy: The Twelfth Annual Debate Handbook.* New York, American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations. 15 pp. 10 cents.

McGregor, A. Grant. *The Barriers to Liberalism must be Removed.* An address delivered to the Scottish Liberal "Right Wages" Committee in the Scottish Liberal Club, Edinburgh, 27 January 1939. Edinburgh, Scottish Liberal "Right Wages" Committee, 1939. 32 pp. 6d.

Methodist Church. Temperance and Social Welfare Department. *The Declaration of the Methodist Church in a Christian View of Industry in relation to the Social Order (adopted by the Conference, 1934).* M.S.W. Series No. 3. London. 19 pp. 2½d.

—— —— *The Declaration of the Methodist Church on Peace and War (adopted by the Methodist Conference, 1933), with a Special Report on the Church and Peace (adopted by the Methodist Conference, 1937), and certain Addenda (adopted by the Methodist Conference, 1934, 1936, 1938).* M.S.W. Series No. 4. London. 23 pp. 2d.

Royal Institute of International Affairs. *Anglo-American Trade Relations.* Information Department Papers, No. 22. London, New York, Oxford University Press, 1938. 48 pp. 1s.; 50 cents.

Scandrett, Jay J. M. *The Nazi Disease.* Boston, Christopher Publishing House, 1939, 141 pp. $1.50.

Zaklad Ubezpieczen Spolecznych. *Matko! czy wiesz co daja twemu dziecku ubezpieczenia spolecznie.* Warsaw, 1938. 15 pp., illustr.